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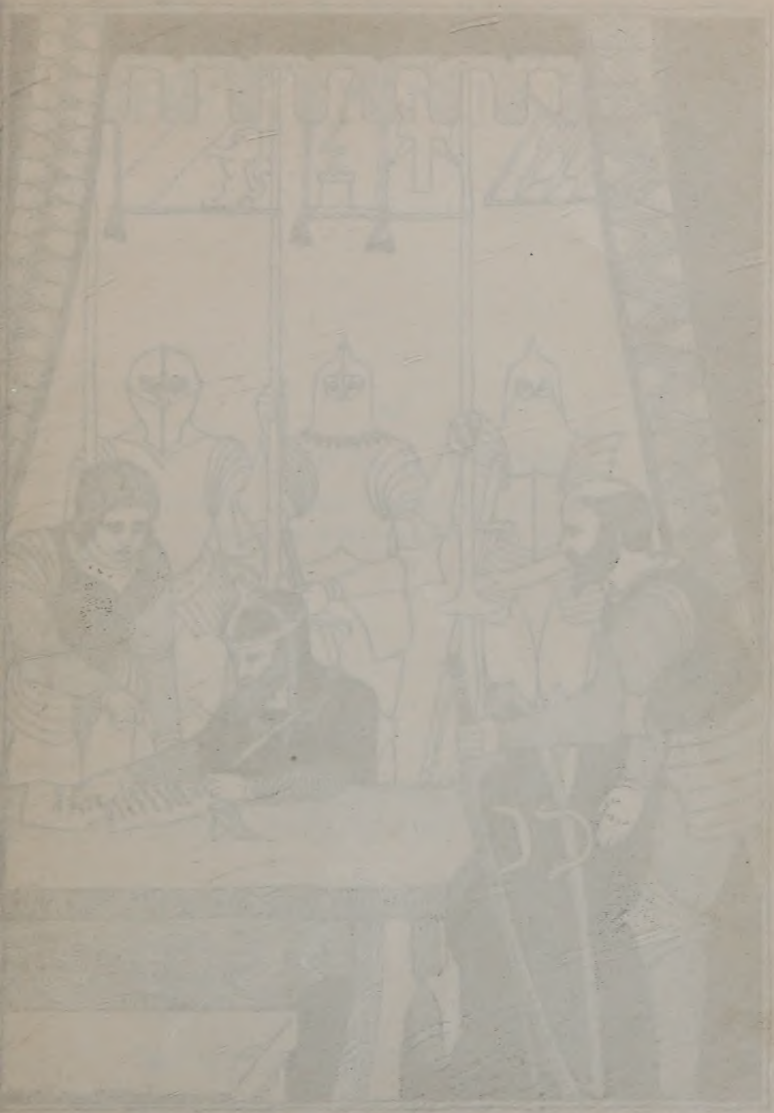

King John signing the Magna Charta at Runnymede, June 15, 1215.

OUR OLD WORLD BEGINNINGS

BY

LAWTON B. EVANS

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BENJ. H. SANBORN & CO.

CHICAGO NEW YORK BOSTON

1927

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INTRODUCTION

THERE are several reasons why pupils of the upper elementary grades should study a brief history of the world. First, a large number of them never reach the high schools and if they learn nothing of the history of the world at large in the elementary grades, they must learn it after they leave school, or never learn it at all.

Second, the knowledge of our Old World beginnings is necessary to an understanding of our own history. Our historical background is a proper setting for our present-day conditions. We must go back to Europe to find out why we are English in language and customs and not French or Spanish.

Third, there are many facts that are the common heritage of the world, such as the calendar, the alphabet, printing, the mariner's compass, and others that do not belong in our history, a knowledge of which is essential to our education.

A book for this purpose should recite those facts that will help a student to understand his future reading in literature, and to appreciate references to events and persons of past ages. It should stimulate him to further reading and research in the history of the world at large, that he may know more intimately the great events and the great men that have brought them about.

In this way he will get a world-wide view of the affairs of mankind rather than a narrow view of his own particular country. So long as we study America as an isolated and unrelated nation, we cannot have that large patriotism that includes all nations and all peoples. Our patriotism should be

all-inclusive, for our nation is composed of all peoples from all countries of the world.

This particular book touches the world's history at its high points only. The lessons are short, and distinctive, each one going back to pick up the thread of history when necessary, rounding out an event or character, so that each topic constitutes a unit in the composition of the whole story. The author has not denied the pupil the many human touches of personal stories that make history attractive to children. The style is simple, direct, and in language that the child can understand.

The story begins with the ancient civilizations and follows the development of the human race down to recent days. It ends with the American Revolution and the beginning of the Industrial Era, which terminate our dependence upon the Old World.

Especial emphasis has been placed upon those events and conditions that have influenced our own history. Those happenings that do not affect us at all, or but slightly, have not been recited.

Each lesson is a separate study in some phase of the world's affairs, in some social condition, in the doings of some one man, or in some revolution of government or thought, that has added to the total of human progress. The wise teacher will therefore aid the pupil in carrying forward what each lesson is intended to impress.

The teacher is advised to read the lesson over with the pupils, explain its meaning, stimulate thought by discussions, extract its essence by a few well-chosen questions, use supplementary texts, and stories, use maps freely, and such teaching devices as may be appropriate.

The author hopes that the study of this volume will stimu-

late a larger interest in past ages and result in a better knowledge of other peoples. Such interest and knowledge should bring a finer understanding of our own conditions, laws, and customs, and our relations to all nations and peoples the world over.

Lawton B. Evans.

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OUR OLD WORLD BEGINNINGS

CHAPTER I

ANCIENT CIVILIZATIONS

1. EGYPT

In order to understand the history of America it is necessary to know something of the history of the Old World. We know that this country was discovered, explored, and settled by people from Europe. Our ancestors for the most part were from Europe. Our language and many of our customs came from Europe. In fact the early history of America is so concerned with the history of former times that we cannot very well understand why and how our own country is as it is, unless we go back many years before America was discovered, and find out what was then going on in the Old World.

Ancient peoples.—Many hundreds of years before any one knew that this continent existed at all, and while savage tribes roamed unknown and undisturbed through its forests, there were splendid civilizations on the other side of the Atlantic Ocean. There were great kingdoms in which were large cities, with churches, schools, and public buildings;

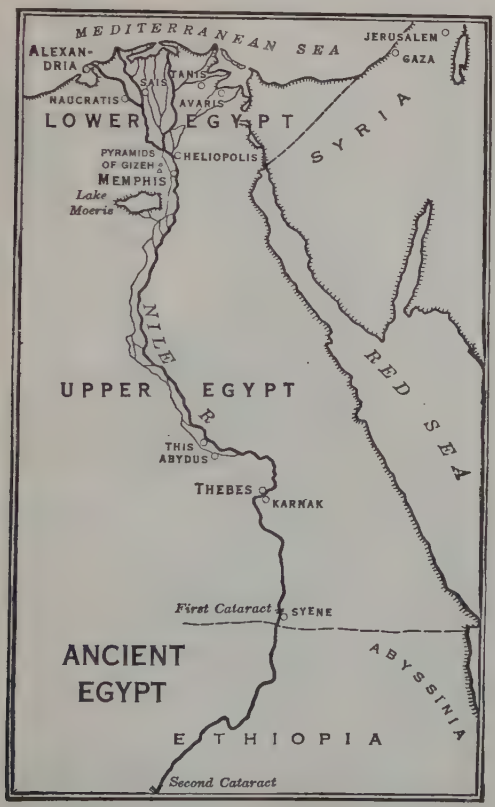
there were those who were wealthy and those who were poor; there were those who were learned and those who were ignorant; there were those who ruled and those who served, very much as it is with us today. It was out of the civilization of old Europe that America came by discovery and exploration, and it was from Europe that it drew its first settlers, with their language, laws, and customs.

But the people of Europe themselves had their own beginnings. They trace their ancestors back to other ancestors, and their civilization back to other civilizations, until they reach very ancient times, and very crude conditions. In fact the first people of the earth lived in a remote era when there were no written records of any kind, except perhaps some rude carvings upon the walls of the caves in which they dwelt. We can only guess what kind of people they were and how they lived.

Therefore we will begin at the beginning as well as we can and tell briefly the story of ancient civilization before we come to modern times.

Egypt the Gift of the Nile.—Seven thousand years ago there lived in the valley of the Nile a people who began to develop the old civilization of Egypt. The valley of the river is a strip of rich soil 20 miles wide and about 500 miles long, and the river itself keeps the valley alive. Rain rarely falls in the valley, and for eight months in the year the sky is cloudless and the land is parched. When the rain

does fall and the snow melts in the mountains, the Nile rises and overflows the country for miles on



The inhabitable portion of ancient Egypt was a strip of land along the Nile, 20 miles wide and 500 miles long.

either side of its banks, and when it returns to its channel after several months it leaves a deposit of rich soil over the thoroughly soaked land. Upon

this soil the people raised wonderful crops of wheat, oats, barley, and rice. Egypt thus became the granary of the ancient world, to which all other people came to buy when there was famine in the land. Egypt has been called the Gift of the Nile. Outside the valley the land is a sandy, barren desert.

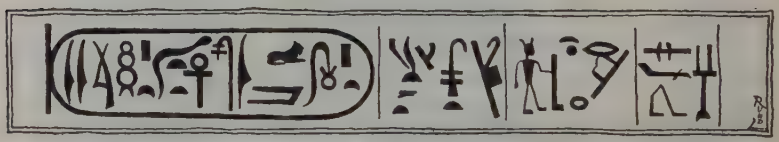
Ruins.—Egypt always was and is today a land of wonders and of mystery. Along the Nile may be seen the ruins of buildings, temples, monuments, and tombs so old that no one knows when they were built. Great columns still reach to the sky, wonderful temples lie in ruins, immense statues stand solemn and awe-inspiring in the deserts. On temples, tombs, columns, and slabs may be seen the strange carved writing of the ancient Egyptians which for hundreds of years no one could read.

The Rosetta Stone.—In the year 1799, when Napoleon was making his campaign in Egypt, one of the French engineers while digging near the Rosetta mouth of the Nile, found a curious slab of black stone carved with three inscriptions. Three years later the stone was carried to England and placed in the British Museum, and scholars began to study the inscriptions. They were in three languages, ancient Egyptian, a later Egyptian, and Greek. Taking the Greek, a known language, as a key, the scholars of that day finally discovered the meaning of the ancient writings or "hieroglyphics" as they are called. After that many of the carved writings

The temple of Karnak was the largest building of the Egyptian Empire, except the Great Pyramid.

of Egypt were read and the ancient history of those people was revealed to the world. This stone is called the Rosetta Stone. It is three and a half feet long, two and a half feet wide, and nearly a foot thick. It is one of the most valuable possessions of the British Museum in London.

Besides the carvings on stone, there still exist in the museums of Europe and Egypt portions of many books written by the ancient Egyptians on a kind of stiff paper made from the pulp of the papyrus reed, and kept in long rolls. These rolls record



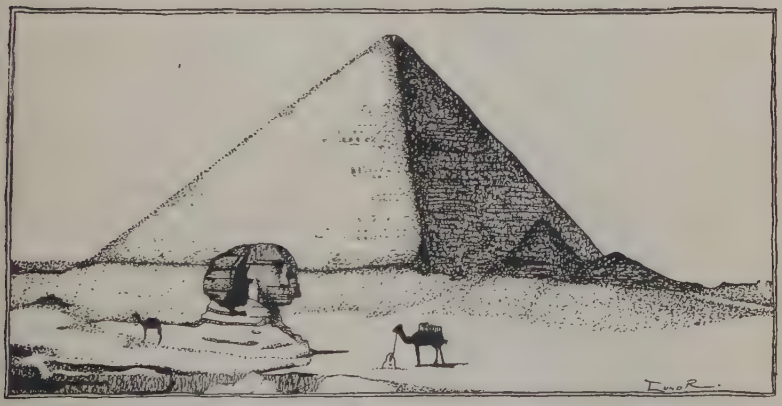
Part of the hieroglyphic inscription on the Rosetta Stone. The portion enclosed by a line was known to be the name of a Pharaoh, and was the starting point for deciphering the entire inscription.

much of the history of the people, as well as their legends, adventures, travel, and poetry.

The Pyramid of Cheops.—Memphis near the mouth of the Nile was one of the ancient capitals of Egypt. Near it stood the pyramids, which were the tombs of the kings. The greatest of these is the Great Pyramid or the Pyramid of Cheops, the most famous of the kings of that era. This pyramid is more than 5,000 years old, and is the most massive building in the world. The base covers thirteen acres, and the top rises 481 feet above the

ground. It took thirty years to build and thousands of men were engaged constantly in the labor, while other thousands toiled to supply food and clothing for the builders.

Over two million stone blocks, some of them weighing fifty tons, went into the Great Pyramid. Some of these great stones had to be raised over a



The Great Pyramid of Cheops, near Memphis, at the mouth of the Nile. It covers 13 acres and rises 481 feet above the ground. In the foreground is the Sphinx.

hundred feet to reach the places for which they were intended. So finely polished and so perfectly adjusted were all the stones that the joints could hardly be detected, and the sides slope to the top with exact line and proportion.

The most remarkable part of it is that all the labor was performed by hand, for the Egyptians had no machinery for hauling, cutting, hoisting, and fitting as we have. We can hardly conceive of the

terrible suffering that the thousands of slaves had to endure, some of them for a lifetime in order that the remains of a vain and pompous king might rest in a vast tomb.

The Sphinx.—Not far from the Great Pyramid is the Sphinx, which is a colossal statue of a human head on the body of a lion, carved out of the stone on which it rests. The monument is 65 feet high, and its whole length is 140 feet. The face alone is 19 feet long, the circumference of the head is 72 feet, while the outstretched paw of the lion's body is 50 feet. No one knows when or by whom this monster carving was made. It lifts its broken and battered face above the sands of the desert, but ever keeps the secret of its maker and of its purpose.

Mummies.—In many of the tombs were found mummies, which are the embalmed bodies of the dead. The body was carefully prepared, filled with spices, wrapped in cloths, and covered with some liquid which preserved it from decay. It was then placed in a wooden coffin or mummy case, and stored somewhere in a tomb. Many mummies have been found by explorers in the tombs, and the cases opened, to discover the well preserved body of some ancient king or warrior who had been dead several thousand years.

Tomb of Tutankhamen.—Another capital of Egypt was Thebes on the Nile River, 350 miles from its mouth. Near this city, in what is known as the

Valley of the Kings, Lord Carnarvon, an Englishman, after a long search, discovered in February, 1923, the tomb of an ancient king, Tutankhamen. He had lain there buried for more than 3,000 years. When the discoverers went down the stone steps and into the opened tomb they found an elaborate royal throne, carved and gilded couches, chariots, pottery, alabaster vases, and stores of food and clothing.

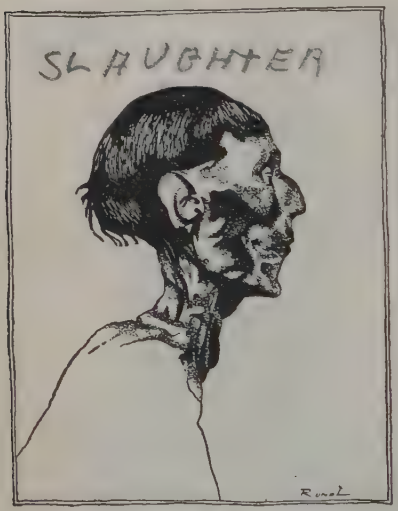
The entrance to the tomb of king Tutankhamen was discovered by Lord Carnarvon in the Valley of the Kings near the ancient city of Thebes.

Inside of another room, which contained the stone coffin of the king himself, were many rare and beautiful objects of ancient workmanship. When the coffin was opened the mummy of the king was seen, in splendid preservation after more than thirty centuries of burial in the sands of the desert.

It is near the remains of the city of Thebes that the ruins of several great temples are found. Some of these temples covered acres of ground, and were composed of a series of great columns, so skilfully

arranged that they give the effect of a mysterious and indescribable grandeur.

The greatest of the royal temple builders was Rameses II. He built a temple for his own glory, cut from solid rock. The face of the temple is 120 feet long and 100 feet high, decorated with four statues of the king himself, each 65 feet high. The interior of the temple was cut back into the cliff a distance of 180 feet.



The mummy head of Rameses II, over 3,000 years old. He was the Pharaoh who oppressed the Hebrews, and the father of the Pharaoh under whom the Exodus took place. He had 111 sons and 59 daughters. He built a temple to himself in which was his own statue 92 feet high. His mummy was found in Thebes in 1881, and is now in the Museum at Cairo, Egypt.

Egyptian art and industry.—The ancient people of Egypt were well advanced in civilization. They built houses out of brick, they wove cloth for their dress, they carved images out of rock, ivory, and wood, made pottery by hand, and fashioned vases from hard stone. They dug canals, and built dams and reservoirs for controlling and distributing water from the Nile River.

The Egyptians were also well advanced in mechanical arts. They knew glass blowing, weaving,

metal working, and stone cutting. They knew a great deal about astronomy, medicine, and methods of calculation. While most of the outside world was in the darkness of utter ignorance and neglect the inhabitants of the Nile valley were building imperishable monuments and temples, studying the stars, recording their history, developing a literature, and establishing a religion, and all this several thousand years before Christ.

Egypt, therefore, was one of the earliest centers of civilization. Other nations were improved by their culture and learning. Even today the traveler is profoundly impressed with the lasting quality of the structures they built and scholars still marvel at the things they knew.

2. OTHER ANCIENT NATIONS

While Egypt was developing in the valley of the Nile, there were other civilizations growing in the valleys of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers, along the eastern shores of the Mediterranean, and as far east as Persia and China. In the first chapter we described the civilization of Egypt, but the ancient civilizations of Babylonia, Assyria, Phoenicia, and Persia were very much the same. In all of these the kings and rulers had great power, lived in royal palaces surrounded with every luxury, built great temples and monuments, while the millions of the poorer classes and slaves toiled in misery.

Babylonians and Chaldeans.—The Babylonians and Chaldeans lived in the lower part of the Tigris and Euphrates valley. They were engaged in agriculture, were industrious, fond of literature, and for the most part were of peaceful habits. Their chief city was Babylon, which at the time of its greatest glory was one of the most wonderful and beautiful cities of the ancient world.

The Babylonian and Chaldean tablets of clay were the books of those days. Assurbanipal, the grandson of Sennacherib, gathered a great library of these tablets at Nineveh, from which we have learned most of what we know of the civilization of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley.

Chaldean tablets.—The Chaldeans used brick instead of stone for building purposes. Therefore most of their ancient structures have perished. They used clay tablets upon which to preserve their records. Thousands of these clay tablets have been found and read by scholars and the history of these ancient people has been revealed to us at the present day. In Babylon the ruins of one library contained over 3,000 tablets, all of them arranged in order.

A few years ago a French explorer found a tablet

4,000 years old containing a code of 280 laws, which when read showed that the Chaldeans were well advanced in the science of government. This is the oldest known code of laws.

These Babylonian and Chaldean tablets record wills, deeds, marriages, and contracts, relate the history of dynasties, publish notices, and in fact were

A Chaldean mosaic representing a hunting scene. These mosaics of finely polished bits of stone and marble are found on the walls of temples and palaces, and show crude efforts at art and decoration.

like books and records of the present day, except that they were all of hard-burnt clay of various sizes covered with a curious wedge-shaped writing, made by pressing a sharp wedge into the soft clay before it was burnt. This kind of writing is called cuneiform, which means wedge-shaped.

Chaldean art and learning.—In addition to much learning in mathematics, the Chaldeans knew a great deal about the stars, made maps of the heavens,

and could foretell eclipses. Every city had its observatory and its royal astronomer. They invented the wheeled cart, and devised armor of leather and copper to protect themselves in battle. They understood the principle of the lever and the pulley, and were the first to use the arch in building vaulted drains and aqueducts. The symbols in "Apothecaries' Table," and the curious "Signs of the Zodiac" in an almanac, all came from the Chaldeans.

The use of the supporting arch in masonry was known to the Chaldeans over 4,000 years ago, as excavations of their buried ruins have revealed.

Babylon.—In the Bible and elsewhere we read of Nebuchadnezzar, one of the great kings of Babylonia. He it was that carried the Jews into the Babylonian captivity, and built Babylon on a scale of great magnificence. The hanging gardens of Babylon were also built by him to please his wife. These gardens rose, one terrace upon another, to a height of 150 feet, and were among the Seven Wonders of the World.

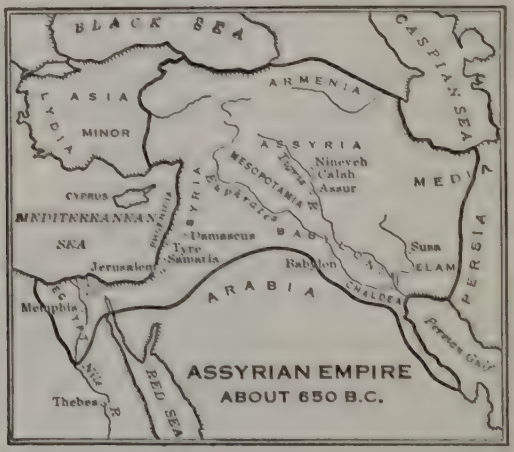
Great as were the Babylonians and the Chaldeans, the last vestige of their engineering skill has disap-

peared. The canals are choked with dirt, the overflowing river has turned the fertile region into dreary marshes, and the drift of the desert has made the sites of many noble cities mere mounds of sand.

The Assyrians.—To the north of Babylonia lay Assyria, where lived a people large, fierce, and warlike. They spent their time in bloody battles and had no civilization except such as they borrowed from their neighbors. With the wealth gained by conquest the rulers of Assyria built magnificent palaces, temples, and public buildings. Many of them were of enduring stone and ornamented with sculpture and carvings. The museums of the world today abound in specimens of Assyrian art, especially of mosaics from the walls of their public buildings.

At one time the Assyrian Empire extended over Babylonia and into Egypt. Its greatest city was Nineveh, and its greatest king was Sargon I. He it was who carried away the ten tribes of Israel into captivity. His son, Sennacherib, subdued Judah. The practices of the Assyrians were so cruel, however, and their warfare so relentless that the great empire fell of its own excesses. Hordes of nomads or wanderers from the north, aided by the Chaldeans and the Egyptians, tore the empire to pieces and proud Nineveh was given over to sack and pillage. Its very site was covered with the dust of centuries and the city was lost until the excavations of recent years have brought to light some of its treasures.

Lydia.—Civilization continued to spread. To the northwest of Assyria, where Turkey now is, arose the kingdom of Lydia. Its greatest king was Croesus, who conquered many cities and small kingdoms and made another great empire. There was much gold and silver in the country. The king became immensely wealthy through the tribute of the



mines, until to be "as rich as Croesus" became a byword.

Coinage of money.—The Lydians were the first to coin money. Before this time trade had been mainly by barter, or with gold and silver by weight, but a king of Lydia stamped the gold and silver pieces with a statement of their weight and purity, as well as with his name and picture. These stamped coins became current everywhere as money.

The Persians.—Far to the northeast of the Euphrates and Tigris rivers lay a great plateau where lived the warlike and barbarous tribes of the Medes and Persians. Cyrus the Great, leader of the Persians, conquered the Medes, then overran Babylonia, Lydia, and Egypt. The Persians soon absorbed the culture of the countries they conquered, and took advantage of their learning and imitated their art and architecture. Cyrus was a great ruler, showing marked favor to the Hebrews who were in captivity at Babylon. He permitted them to return to Jerusalem and even helped them to rebuild their temple.

The Phoenicians.—On the eastern shore of the Mediterranean lay a small strip of country called Phoenicia. It was only 15 or 18 miles wide and 150 miles long, lying between the mountains of Lebanon and the sea, but it played an important part in history.

Its most notable king was Hiram, who lived in his great palace at Tyre. He it was who helped Solomon build the temple of Jerusalem, supplying him with the cedars of Lebanon and with other building material.

Phoenician enterprise.—The Phoenicians were shipbuilders, sailors, explorers, and traders. Their fleets sailed along all known shores and their merchantmen ranged all known seas. They became the common carriers of the world. They brought spices,

ivory, scented wood, and jewels from India; incense, myrrh, precious stones, and gold from Arabia; silver, iron, lead, and copper from Spain; ostrich feathers, ebony, and gold from the coasts of Africa; and tin from Britain itself.

Wherever they went they planted colonies mainly for the purpose of trade. Carthage in Africa and Cadiz in Spain were among the settlements they

founded. They were the missionaries of early civilization, carrying the arts and comforts of those days into barbarous and half civilized lands. They spread civilization along the shores of the Mediterranean and mixed the culture of all advanced races with the rude conditions of savage people.

For one hundred and fifty years Tyre led all cities in the extent of her trade. In her markets were to be found traders from all lands, speaking all

languages, bringing all products for exchange, and purchasing from the busy workmen of Tyre itself rare products of skill and art.

The alphabet.—The Phoenicians were the first to make an alphabet. Up to this time all writing was sign writing, in which a single character stood for one word. The Phoenicians devised signs for sounds so that one could spell any word he chose. Their alphabet consisted of twenty-two letters, for consonant sounds only. This alphabet was adopted by other nations, came on down through the centuries, and with changes from time to time is practically the alphabet we use today. The shapes of the letters we owe largely to the Romans.

Like all other ancient people, the Phoenicians were overrun, conquered, and destroyed. For a thousand years they flourished as the traders of the world, then came other people who despoiled them of their treasures. Tyre is no more, Babylon is no more, Nineveh is no more. Other nations rolled over them, carrying the rich treasures of eastern art, industry, and learning as civilization moved westward.

3. THE GREEKS—THEIR GODS AND HEROES

Civilization now enters Europe, in the land of Greece. This country is almost surrounded by the Mediterranean, and its shores are so deeply indented that no part of the land is more than forty miles

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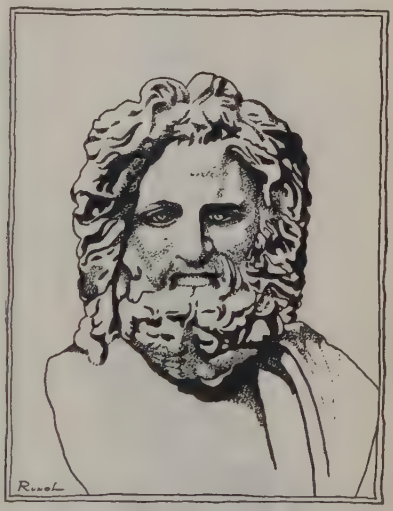
from the sea. This made the Greeks a seafaring people. As they emerged from their barbarous state they eagerly seized upon the arts and habits of the eastern people, brought to them by Phoenician traders, or discovered for themselves on their own voyages.

Rise of Greece.—As the centuries went by and the civilizations of Asia declined, that of Greece grew into greater and finer proportions. Athens, Sparta, Thebes, and Corinth became great cities. Great buildings and temples were constructed and wonderful highways laid out. Fleets were built, and armies were raised. Greece became the dominant power of the world, and remained so for many hundred years. Its civilization has left a profound impression upon the history of the world.

Earliest forms of worship.—It is in the nature of men to worship, and even the crudest people have some kind of religion, and imagine some kind of supreme power, and some kind of god. At first people worshiped the sun, the wind, the stars, even the rivers and some animals, all of which they could see. Finally, they made gods for themselves of images and worshiped them. Then they began to worship invisible gods who were supposed to rule over the forces of nature and over the affairs of men. There were gods of war, gods of peace, gods of industry; there were goddesses of all kinds, and many minor deities for almost everything.

The Gods of the Greeks and Romans.—The religion of the Greeks was doubtless an adaptation and enlargement of the religion of more ancient civilizations. Later on this religion was passed on to the Romans and the gods and goddesses were given Roman names. These names are better known to us than the Greek names, and are the ones we shall use. The supreme god was Jove or Jupiter. He was the king of all gods, and ruled the weather. He carried the lightning in his hand, and hurled thunderbolts when he was angry. His wife was named Juno, a handsome goddess with black eyes that could flash fire when she was not pleased, and her temper was by no means gentle. Vulcan was the name of one of their children. He was the god of fire, the volcanoes were his workshops, and the earthquakes were the rumbling of his forge. The wife of Vulcan was Venus, the goddess of love and beauty. Her son was Cupid, the god of love. Apollo was the god of the sun, of music, and poetry,



Jove, or Jupiter, the supreme god of the Greeks and Romans. His massive head is shown in many ancient statues and carvings.

and the fine arts. He was the most beautiful of all the gods. Diana was the goddess of the moon and of the chase. She always wore a crescent on her well-shaped head. Mercury was the messenger of the gods. On his hat and feet were wings, and in his hand he carried a wand with snakes around it. He was also the god of commerce, and of the rain and winds. Mars was the god of war. He wore a suit of armor and carried a spear and shield.

The statue of Athene, or Minerva, goddess of war and wisdom, and protecting deity of the city of Athens.

Other gods and goddesses.—There were other deities such as Neptune, god of the sea; Minerva, goddess of of war; Ceres, goddess of the earth and harvests; Pluto, god of the lower region; Vesta, goddess of the home and fireside. Indeed there was a god or goddess for everything. Not a single occupation, amusement, or concern of mankind, and not anything in nature, but had some deity to look after it. All these gods and goddesses had their temples,

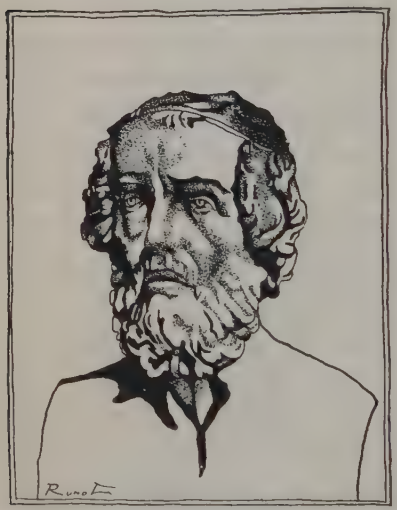
shrines, worshipers, and sacrifices. They had their loves and hates, very much as people did.

How the gods lived.—All the gods and goddesses lived on Mount Olympus, in houses of brass made by Vulcan. They ate ambrosia, drank nectar, and sat in council. They decided the fate of empires, wars, and enterprises, and took personal interest in the affairs of men, according to their likes and dislikes. Sometimes they appeared on earth in disguise or in their own shape, and in general did pretty much as they pleased to do. All over Greece may be seen the remains of temples built to these gods by those who wished to engage their interest, or as an offering for some fancied service.

It was a strange religion of hundreds of imaginary gods, goddesses, and nymphs, who were very human, but it pleased the Greeks and satisfied their longing for the supernatural.

The Trojan War.—The Greeks developed a great literature. Homer was one of the noblest poets that the world has known. It is from his epic poem *The Iliad* that the story of the Trojan War has come down to us. The story goes that in a contest between Juno, Minerva, and Venus, as to who was the fairest, the decision was referred to Paris, the young son of Priam, king of Troy. Paris decided in favor of Venus, who promised him the most beautiful woman in the world for his wife. Paris journeyed across the seas and came to Sparta, where King

Menelaus lived. Here the young prince met Helen, the wife of the king, who was the most beautiful woman in all Greece. They fell in love with each other, and under the influence of Venus, Helen eloped with Paris and fled with him to Troy.



Homer, the greatest poet of ancient times, whose noble epics, *The Iliad* and *The Odyssey*, told the story of the Trojan War and the wanderings of Ulysses.

The siege of Troy.— This raised a storm all over Greece. Menelaus raged and all his brother kings swore they would join him with their armies and sail to Troy, lay siege to that ancient and splendid city, destroy it utterly, and bring back to Greece the runaway queen. For several years the preparations went on. Finally a great army went aboard a large fleet, sailed across the Aegean Sea, landed on the shores of Troy, and besieged the city from all sides. Agamemnon, the brother of Menelaus, was the commander of all the Greeks, and Achilles was their greatest warrior.

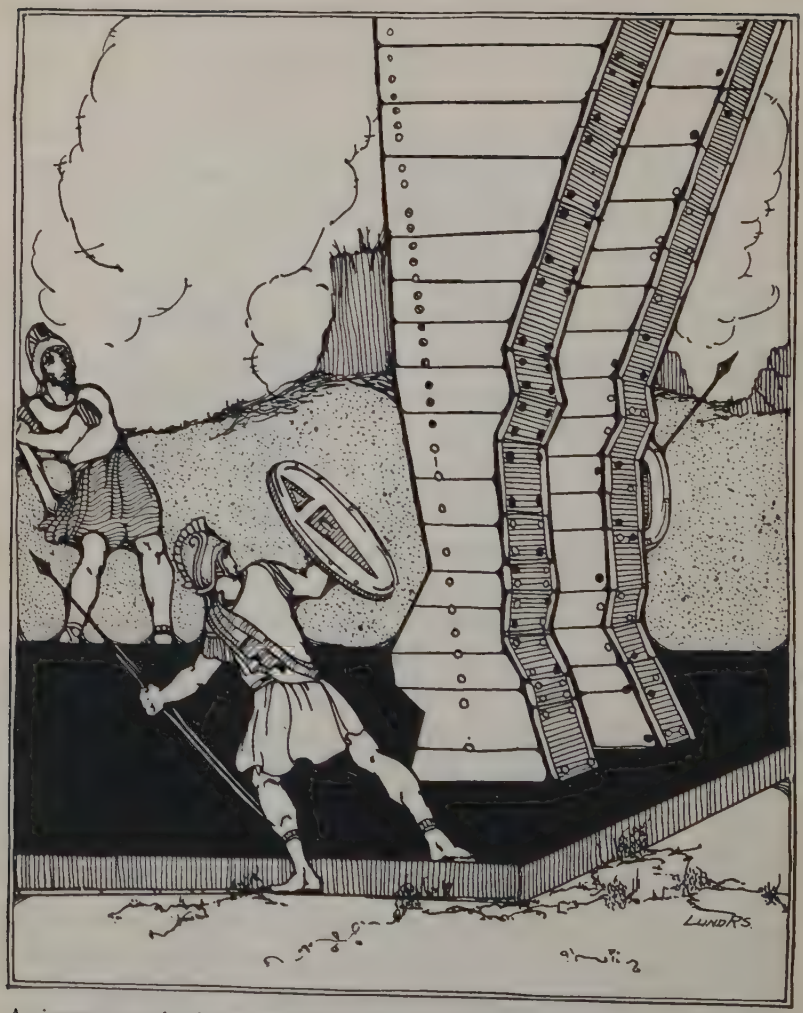
Troy was a walled city, bravely defended by Hector, the noble son of Priam, and by many valiant Trojans. For ten years the war lasted. There was

fighting on the plains sometimes for days, and then the armies were quiet for weeks and even months at a time.

Achilles and Hector.—At length Hector and Achilles met in single and deadly combat. Both armies looked on in wonder at the marvelous skill of both great combatants. For hours they fought, until at last Hector was borne to the ground and slain by his mighty antagonist. Achilles stripped the body of its armor, tied the dead hero to the tail of his chariot, and dragged his body around the walls of Troy, while the old king Priam and a host of Trojans moaned and wailed in great sorrow.

But Achilles was not far from his own doom. One day in battle Paris, himself an able soldier, drew his bow and sent a poisoned shaft at Achilles and wounded him in the heel. Quickly the poison did its work and the great Achilles was as dead as the mighty Hector he had slain a short time before.

The wooden horse.—The Trojans held out bravely and the siege seemed hopeless. At last the crafty Ulysses, a Greek leader, proposed a scheme by which the city might be taken. He devised a wooden horse, and had it built upon the plains before the gates of the city. He with a hundred other picked men climbed inside the body of the wooden structure and closed the sides. The other Greeks pretended to sail away, but really hid behind a neighboring island, leaving the horse with the men inside.



An immense wooden horse was built by the Greeks before the walls of Troy, and filled with soldiers. When the Trojans dragged the horse into the city, the Greeks let themselves out of the horse which led to the downfall of the city.

The fall of Troy.—Quickly came the Trojans outside to behold the empty plain, and to rejoice that the Greeks were gone. Thinking the horse was the gift of the gods, they widened the gates and drew the clumsy structure inside the walls. Then the people gave themselves over to revelry and late at night fell into deep sleep. When all was still the Greeks let themselves out of the horse, and set fire to the city. By this time the other Greeks had returned and began to pour through the open gates and the broken walls.

Troy was given over to pillage and destruction. Priam was slain at the altar of his own palace. The city was despoiled of its treasures, its women were made captive, and its walls were demolished. Proud Troy was no more. Helen went back with her husband to his palace at Sparta, and all the other Greek leaders departed to their homes.

4. THE CULTURE AND CUSTOMS OF THE GREEKS

Greek supremacy.—Greece rapidly became the dominant country of the world. Soon after 500 B.C. the Greeks tried their strength with the Persians, and at Marathon, Salamis, and Plataea drove back the invaders and settled the question of European supremacy over the eastern nations. After the battle of Marathon a runner was sent to Athens with the news. He ran twenty-eight miles over a moun-

tain road with incredible speed. When he reached the city he cried "The victory is ours," and fell dead. This famous run has given the name to the modern Marathon race.

Spartan training.—Two great cities arose, Sparta and Athens. In Sparta the citizens were trained from early life to be soldiers. The Spartan training was very severe. The boy must endure all kinds of hardship and torture without complaining. A story is told that a Spartan boy had a fox hidden under his cloak. Being questioned by the elders he smilingly answered all their inquiries though the fox was cruelly biting and tearing at his side. The Spartan mother was so intent on victory that it was her custom to tell her son on going into battle to return with his shield, or else be borne back on it. The Spartans did little for Greece. They were narrow, ignorant, and warlike, and added nothing to the art, literature, science, and philosophy of the time.

Athens.—Athens was the greatest city of ancient Greece. Its very ruins have been the admiration of all men. In Athens, Greek art reached its highest perfection. Under the direction of artists, the like of which the world has not known since, statues were carved, and temples, colonnades, and porticoes were built that have never been surpassed.

The Acropolis.—In the center of the city rose a hill, made into a citadel, and called the Acropolis. It was a massive rock, that was crowned with build-

THRACE
Bosporus
BLACK SEA
ILLYRIA
MACEDONIA
Amphipolis
Byzantium
BITHYNIA
SEA OF MARMORA
THASOS
CHALCIDICE
Olynthus
Thermaic Gulf
MT. OLYMPUS
Potidaea
MT. ATHOS
THRACIAN SEA
Dardanelles
Troy
PHRYGIA
EPIRUS
CORFU
Dodona
THESSALY
LEMNOS
ASIA MINOR
MYSIA
LESBOS
Mytilene
Pergamum
IONIAN SEA
LEUCAS
EUBOEA
AEGEAN SEA
Phocaea
LYDIA
SARDIS
Naupactus
Delphi
ITHACA
CHIOS
CEPHALLENIA
Thebes
ATTICA
ZACYNTHUS
Corinth
ATHENS
Epheseus
ANDROS
SAMOS
Olympia
Argos
PELOPONNESUS
TENOS
ICARIA
Miletus
CARIA
DELOS
Messene
Sparta
NAXOS
Halicarnassus
CYCLADES
SPORADES
LYCIA
Rhodes
RHODES
CYTHERA
THE ATHENIAN EMPIRE
AT ITS HEIGHT
ABOUT 450 B. C.
Allied States
Dependent States

ings of white marble. A stately stairway of sixty steps led up to a colonnade and into a portico of surpassing beauty. On the hill were temples and statues any one of which a modern city would be proud to own.

The Parthenon.—The noblest and most beautiful of all the buildings on the Acropolis was the Parthe-

The Acropolis, a massive rock in the center of the city of Athens, abandoned as a fortress, was devoted to religion and art. In front of the Parthenon, on the top, stood the bronze statue of Athene, or Minerva, whose tall spear was the first sign of the city to sailors at sea.

non, built of purest marble and dedicated to Athene, or Minerva. Its ruins today show how perfect it must have been. It was about 225 feet long, 100 feet wide, and 60 feet high. It was surrounded by 46 columns of the finest workmanship, and adorned with statues made by Phidias, the great Greek sculptor, or else under his direction.

One of the greatest losses the world of art has

known was the destruction of the Parthenon in 1687 by the Venetians when they were attacking Athens, then held by the Turks. The temple was used as a powder magazine. A chance shot caused the magazine to explode, demolishing the roof and walls, and leaving a hopeless wreck of one of the most beautiful buildings ever erected by the skill of man.

The head of the Venus of Milo, whose statue was found on the Island of Milos in 1820. The assumed date is about 400 B. C. It is now in the Louvre Gallery at Paris.

Greek statuary.—The Greeks have never been surpassed in the number and beauty of the marble statues carved by their great artists. Many of these statues were destroyed by invaders, some were buried to protect them from destruction, and others were carried off by conquering nations. Phidias, who ornamented the Parthenon, and surrounded it with marvelous statuary of his own carving, is considered the greatest sculptor that ever lived.

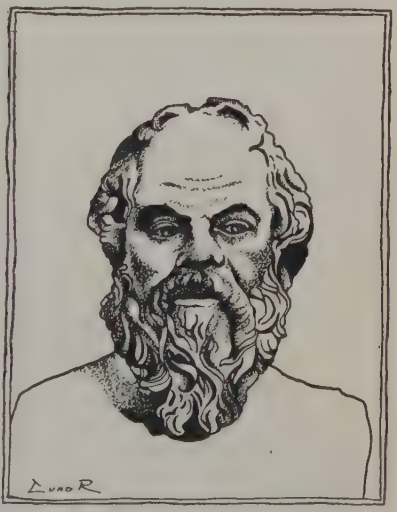
The museums of the world abound in original Greek statues, some in perfect condition and others badly mutilated. In many cases the head, arms, and

legs are gone, but the remains are valuable treasures to the world of art. Among the most famous of those that are preserved are the *Venus of Milo,* found by accident on the island of Milo in 1820, near the ruins of an ancient city, and now in the Louvre at Paris; the *Apollo Belvedere* found in 1503 and now in the Vatican Gallery at Rome; The *Laocoon Group* found in 1506 and now also in the Vatican Gallery.

The Apollo Belvedere, discovered in the ruins of Antium in 1503, and now in the Belvedere Gallery of the Vatican. Assumed date is somewhere in the 4th century B. C. It is considered to be among the perfect statues known to the world.

Socrates.—The Greeks early developed a noble philosophy. Socrates was one of the most advanced thinkers of his day. He was a poor man, who lived by carving little images of the gods. He was a great trial to his wife, Xantippe, for he neglected his business and stood in the market place all day, discoursing philosophy with his followers, or with any one who would listen to him. He went barefoot, and dressed most simply. His bald head, ugly face, thick lips, and flat nose, made him a grotesque figure and

a great sport of the comic writers. His practice was to ask an innocent question of some prominent man, and then by the answer he received, to show how shallow and foolish were the opinions of those he questioned. This method of question and answer is known as the "Socratic Method."



Socrates was the greatest of Greek philosophers. He was the founder of the "Socratic Method" of teaching. At 70 years of age he was accused of corrupting the youth of Athens. Condemned to death, he died after drinking a cup of hemlock.

In his old age he was condemned to death on a charge of corrupting the youth of Athens by his teachings. For thirty days in prison he talked with his friends, arguing and explaining his principles that the soul was immortal and that the body only could perish. He said to those around him, "When you bury me you do not bury Socrates, you only bury his body. I shall be with the gods." He drank a cup of hemlock with a smile upon his lips, and passed away.

Age of Pericles.—There were other great philosophers as well as poets, dramatists, orators, and historians, whose writings have been preserved to us. It was when Pericles was ruler of Athens that art

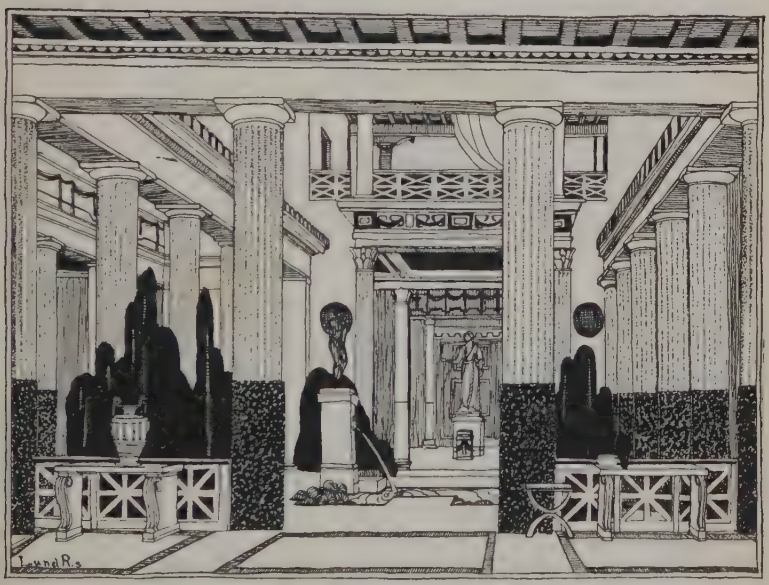
and literature reached their greatest glory. This was known as the Age of Pericles. It has been said that in the fifth century B.C. Athens had more great men in all departments of art, literature, and philosophy than the whole world has ever produced in any other equal period. We can easily see, therefore, how much all modern times are indebted to the Greeks.

Pericles, about 400 B. C., was the ablest citizen and the practical dictator of the city of Athens, for a quarter of a century. He made Athens the most beautiful and the most renowned city in the world at that time. On his deathbed he said, "My greatest solace is that no citizen of Athens has worn mourning for anything I have ever done to him."

The houses of the Greeks.—Let us see something of the home life of the Greek people. Splendid as were the temples and public places, the resident portions of Greek cities were much neglected. The houses of the rich were small and simple and one house touched another, with the walls flush with the street, and one small door for entrance. They were like blocks packed in a row. They were generally one story, built of clay or brick, unheated by fireplaces, with an open court in the center, where sometimes a fountain ran into a pool. The houses of

the poor were merely mud huts with no conveniences of any kind. In such houses also lived the slaves of which there were many thousands captured in war.

Living conditions.—The streets were narrow and crooked, hardly more than alleys. They had no



The houses of the wealthy Greeks were one-story affairs, with an open court, surrounded by a colonnade. The rooms opened onto the court, and generally were bare of comforts.

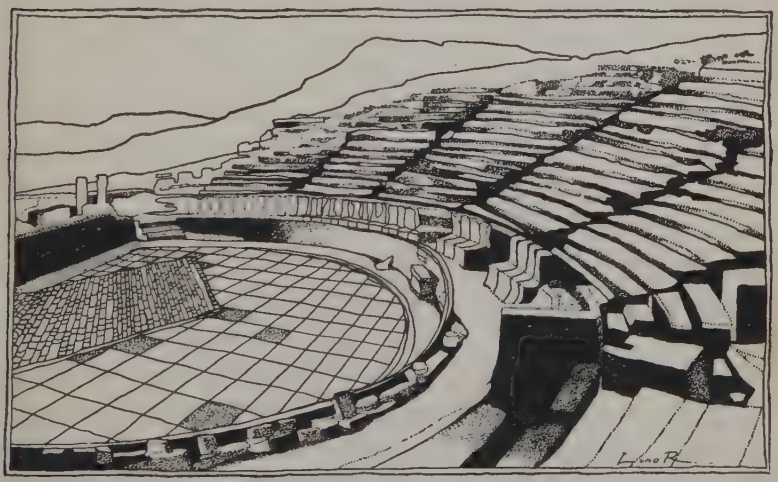
pavements, were covered with refuse, and often a passerby was deluged with dirty water from the housetops. There were no sewers, no fire protection, no sanitary provisions. The crowded condition of the houses and of the narrow streets was necessary because cities had to be surrounded by

walls for protection from their enemies; the more crowded the houses and the narrower the streets, the less wall there was to build. The comforts of modern life, such as water, light, sewerage, open porches, and gardens, were unknown to ancient cities, Greek or any other kind, except in the palaces of the kings. The glory of Athens was in its temples, statues, public buildings, and open groves. The homes were by no means attractive.

Greek education.—Education among the Greeks was largely physical in order to develop strong and beautiful bodies. Exercise in the open air, with little clothing to hamper them, with their elders looking on to applaud, direct, and encourage, and a director to guide them, made the Greek youths athletic and healthy.

Greek sports.—Nearly every city had its stadium for games and sports. This consisted of an open level area, with seats banked up on the sides, much like the athletic fields of this day. Here the great games were held. The foot race was the most important feature. The races ranged from three-quarters of a mile to three miles. Another contest was jumping, either the standing jump or the running jump. Discus throwing consisted of throwing a circular piece of stone or bronze, and as the discus was hard to hold it required a great deal of skill and strength to throw it any distance. Casting the javelin consisted of throwing a pole or rod about eight or

ten feet long. Wrestling ended the five events. Great crowds attended the games. The most famous athletes from all over Greece assembled at Athens and at other places in Greece to engage in these contests. The victor was crowned with an olive wreath, which was as honorable as a crown worn by a king.



The theatre of Dionysius, the god of wine and revelry, was on the slope of the Acropolis, and seated 17,000 persons. The plays were presented in the open air, without any of the gorgeous scenery of modern times. Every Greek city had its theatre, as well as its stadium for sports.

The Olympian games of the present day are a revival of the old Greek athletic contests, though the events themselves are very different.

5. ALEXANDER THE GREAT

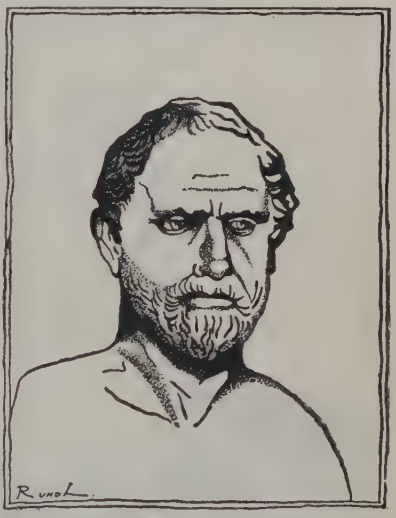
Athens and Sparta at war.—Athens and Sparta went to war with each other on account of jealousies

and to settle their rivalry. Sparta had the best army and Athens the best fleet, and each had its allied cities. The Spartan army ravaged the fields of Attica, and shut the people up in their city, while the Athenian fleet harried the coasts of the Spartan cities. A plague broke out in Athens and destroyed one-fourth of the inhabitants. The war lasted seven years. In the end Athens was overcome by her enemies, but the whole country was distracted by dissension and weakened by war. This made Greece an easy prey to foreign enemies, who were already gathering on her northern borders.

Philip II of Macedon.—To the north lay Macedonia, whose people were akin to and very like the Greeks themselves. Philip II of Macedon was their ambitious, able, and crafty king. He enlarged his country by forcing an outlet to the sea, and enriched it by working the gold mines of conquered territory. Having overcome his barbarous neighbors all around him, he turned his attention to Greece. He sent secret agents throughout the country, who by cunning and diplomacy set city against city, and kept up the quarrels already ruinous enough.

He organized a great army, and devised the Macedonian phalanx, which consisted of five ranks of soldiers, one close behind the other, each rank having spears long enough to project over the front line. This made a bristling wall that no enemy seemed able to withstand.

Conquest of Greece.—Demosthenes, the Athenian orator, saw impending danger, and made his great speeches against the coming of Philip. But the people paid little attention to him. The blow fell. Philip invaded Greece, easily overcoming the army sent against him. In this way, 338 B.C., Macedonia became the conqueror of Greece. Two years later Philip was assassinated. His work was taken up by his son Alexander, whose extraordinary genius earned for him the title of the Great.



Demosthenes, the great Athenian orator, whose eloquence failed to arouse the citizens of Athens to oppose Philip.

Boyhood of Alexander.—As a boy Alexander was fearless, self-willed, and unusually sagacious. One day an unmanageable horse was brought to Philip to buy, but the king refused, and ordered the wild steed to be led away. Alexander offered to mount him, and to the astonishment of all leaped on the horse's back, and rode him quietly, though he had never before obeyed any rider. He named the horse Bucephalus, and loved him greatly. He never rode any other and the horse himself never allowed any one else to mount him.

Alexander was twenty years old when his father died. He became a rare military genius, never refusing a battle and never losing one. There were

Alexander, when a boy, mounts an unmanageable horse, by turning his face toward the sun, so that he would not shy at his shadow. The horse was named "Bucephalus," which means "ox-head," from the shape of his head.

uprisings all over his kingdom. Young as he was he delivered crushing blows to the savage tribes all around him. He then marched against Thebes in

Greece that had also defied his authority. That city he leveled to the ground, and sold thirty thousand of the people into slavery. He then began the conquest of Persia.

Alexander the Conqueror.—With thirty-five thousand men he crossed the Hellespont, living on the country, and moving swiftly from place to place. It took him five years to conquer the Persian Empire and reduce it to subjection. In one of the battles he overthrew six hundred thousand Persians, led by King Darius himself. The Persian army was caught in a defile of the mountains and so confused by the attack of Alexander that they became a helpless mob. The Macedonians slaughtered them until weary of the butchery. At another battle he overthrew Darius and a million men.

The City of Alexandria.—Having conquered Persia, the young king turned his attention to Egypt, which welcomed him as a deliverer from the rule of Persia. At the mouth of the Nile he founded the city of Alexandria, destined to become one of the great cities of the ancient world. Here in later years was founded the famous Alexandrian library of over a half million manuscripts, with scribes to make copies of them. It is upon the work of these scribes that our modern printed editions of Greek books are mainly based. Hundreds of years later, the famous library was destroyed and many of its treasures lost forever.

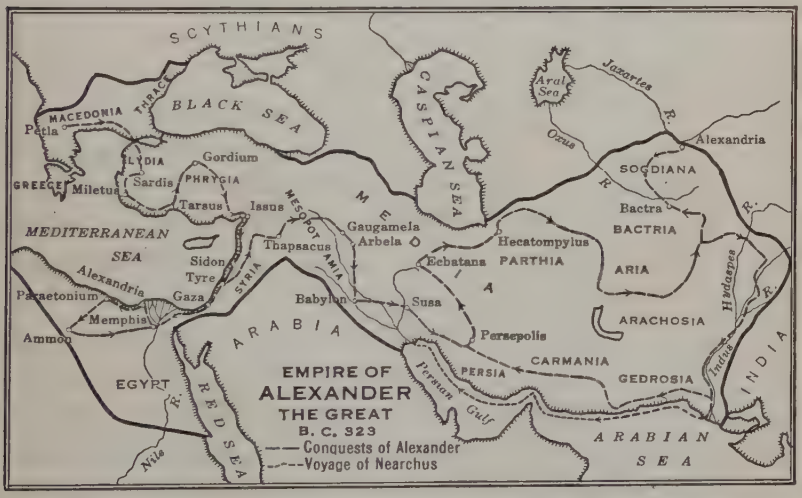
Alexander a builder of cities.—Alexander was a great builder as well as conqueror. Wherever his armies took possession there he built cities, many of them named after himself. Thus there came to be an Alexandria in nearly every country in the world. On the march his army would stop at a place he designated and with pick, shovel, and hoe dig out the foundation of walls, and build rude houses in which a garrison would be stationed. The surrounding population would be terrified into submission, and the army would march on leaving behind a new town. Seventy of these cities were thus founded. It was said that one city was built complete in twenty days.

Alexander the Great, king of Macedonia, who at 32 years of age had completed the conquest of Greece, Persia, and Egypt, built 70 cities, and spread Greek culture over the known world.

Wherever Alexander went he spread the civilization and culture of the Greeks. He himself believed in culture as well as warfare. Every city built in foreign lands had a Greek colony to which Greek youths flocked, and where Greek customs were carried. In this way Alexander made the Greek civilization a universal civil-

ization, exerting its influence over all known lands, and affecting all people.

Spread of Greek ideas.—The Greeks and Persians mingled and each learned of the other. The Greeks found by travel and study in the East vast stores of knowledge that they turned to their own account. The East found itself using the Greek language,



building Greek temples, carving Greek statues, and cultivating Greek games and festivals. In every city of the world were theatres where vast audiences listened to Greek orators and attended Greek plays. Alexander brought the East and the West together and Greek ideas prevailed over the known world.

Alexander continued his conquests until he had conquered nearly all the known world. At last his

followers were weary of the many wars, and compelled him to rest at Babylon, which city he made his capital. Here at the age of thirty-two he died. On his deathbed he was asked to whom he would leave his kingdom. He answered: "I leave it to the strongest." But there was no one man stronger than the others among his many generals and followers. Then followed bitter quarrels and wars until at last the mighty empire was divided into small kingdoms among the generals of the great conqueror. Each kingdom, however, was still large and powerful, and each kept the culture and influence it had received when there was but one empire and one ruler over all.

Macedonia and Greece remained one kingdom. Under the inspiring orations of Demosthenes, Greece revolted and tried to throw off the yoke of Macedonia. The effort failed, and Demosthenes fled from Athens and ended his life by poison. However, Greece did not suffer by the union with its northern neighbor.

Greece in its glory.—The splendor of Greek civilization continued. For two hundred years after the death of Alexander, Greece was in its glory of literature, art, architecture, and science. Living became more comfortable, the people became wealthy, and the arts and sciences flourished. Painting reached a high perfection. It was said that Zeuxis painted a bunch of grapes so perfectly that birds pecked at

them, and that Apelles painted a horse so lifelike that another horse seeing the painting neighed loudly as if to a live companion.

Greek science.—Science made great strides during the Alexandrian Age. Archimedes discovered the principle of the lever; Euclid, a Greek, studying over at Alexandria in Egypt, wrote a geometry, very like what we have now. Other Greeks studying and working at home or in other countries wrote geographies, taught that the earth moved around the sun, calculated eclipses, and even proved that the earth was round.

What the world owes to the Greeks.—Let us remember that in Greece before and after Alexander there were gathered all the best elements of the civilizations that went before his time. For a thousand years they were perfected and made ready for future ages. The world therefore owes to the Greeks: 1. Splendid models of architecture in temples and public buildings. 2. Beautiful and perfect statuary. 3. Many inspiring orations, poems, and dramas. 4. The beginnings of its best philosophy.

TOPICS FOR REVIEW

Why we should know the history of the Old World civilization in Europe before the discovery of America. Very ancient times and peoples.

Egypt.—The valley of the Nile. How the land is fertilized. The gift of the Nile. Egyptian art and industry.

Egyptian ruins. The Rosetta Stone. Papyrus rolls. Memphis and the pyramids. The Great Pyramid, its age, dimensions, facts about its building. The Sphinx. Mummies. King Tutankhamen's tomb. Thebes and the great temples. Rameses II. Things the Egyptians knew.

Other ancient nations.—Civilizations other than Egyptian. The Babylonians and Chaldeans. Chaldean tablets. Oldest code of laws. Cuneiform writing. What the Chaldeans knew; what they invented and devised; what they understood. Chaldean symbols. Nebuchadnezzar and Babylon. The hanging gardens. The Assyrians, their character; their structures; their conquests. Nineveh. Sargon I. Facts of Assyria. Lydia and Croesus. Coinage of money. Cyrus the Great. The Persian Empire. Character of Cyrus. Phoenicia; Hiram of Tyre. Phoenician enterprises. Phoenician colonies. Tyre. The Phoenician alphabet. Fate of Phoenicia.

The Greeks—their gods and heroes.—The land of Greece. The character of the people. Rise of Greece; cities; enterprises. Earliest forms of worship. Jupiter; Juno; Vulcan; Minerva; Apollo; Diana; Mercury; Mars; other gods and goddesses. How the gods lived, and what they did. Homer; *The Iliad*. The decision of Paris; Paris and Helen. The siege of Troy; progress of the war. Achilles and Hector. Death of Achilles. The wooden horse. The fall of Troy.

The culture and customs of the Greeks.—Greek supremacy; Marathon race. Spartan training; the boy and the fox; the Spartan mother. Athens; its art and architecture. The Acropolis. The Parthenon. Greek statuary. Phidias. *Venus of Milo; Apollo Belvedere; Laocoon Group.*

Socrates; his habits; his methods; his death. The Age of Pericles. Home life of the Greeks. Houses of the wealthy; the homes of the poor. Condition of streets; crowded conditions. Greek education. The stadium; the footrace; the jump; discus throwing; casting the javelin; wrestling. Olympian games.

Alexander the Great.—Sparta and Athens at war. Philip II; his enterprise. The Macedonian phalanx. Demosthenes. Conquest of Greece. Alexander's boyhood; his first conquests. Conquest of Persia. Founding of Alexandria; the Alexandrian library. Conquers the world. The building of cities; spreading of Greek culture. The mingling of Greek and eastern ideas. Greece in its glory. Zeuxis; Apelles. Greek science; Archimedes; Euclid. What the world owes to the Greeks.

SUBJECTS FOR DISCUSSION

Name some countries in the Old World from which the people of America came. What would Egypt be without the overflowing of the Nile, and why? What conditions made civilization easy in Egypt? Why are the pyramids wonderful?

Of what use to us are the ancient tablet records? What do we owe to the Chaldeans? Who first coined money?

For what are we indebted to the Phoenicians?

Name some of the Greek deities. Tell the story of the Trojan War. Explain the Socratic Method. Compare ancient living conditions with those of modern times. Compare Greek sports with those of today. How did Alexander show his greatness? How did he show his vanity? What does the world of today owe to the Greeks?

CHAPTER II

ROMAN CIVILIZATION

6. THE BEGINNINGS OF ROME

Romulus and Remus.—Before the time of recorded history some tribe of people from the East, tired of oppression or driven out by persecution, traveled westward over plains and mountains, driving their herds before them until they came to the land of Italy. Here they settled, and for many hundreds of years grew in numbers and increased in prosperity. They were undisturbed and unnoticed in the greater affairs that were going on in Greece and the eastern countries.

A legend says that a princess of these people married Mars, the god of war. They had twin children, Romulus and Remus. The uncle of the twins disliked them so much that he had them placed in a basket and set them adrift on the river Tiber, thinking the infants would drown or perish. The basket drifted ashore, and according to the traditions, the twins were found by a she-wolf, who suckled them as though they were her own cubs. After a short while the twins were discovered by some shepherds and were brought up to be strong young men.

Founding of Rome.—About the year 753 B.C. Romulus decided to found a city near the den of the wolf that had saved his life. He ploughed a furrow around a hill, called the Palatine, and named the place Rome. Rude mud huts were built, adventurers flocked in, other hills were included, until seven

An ancient bronze wolf (sixth century B. C.), made by Greek artists in Italy. The two infants are later additions, to carry out the legend of the nurture of Romulus and Remus. The figure is carefully preserved at the Capitol in Rome.

hills had been enclosed into one town with a great wall around them all.

One of the legends of the early history of Rome relates how the robbers, bandits, and runaway slaves who were the first settlers, managed to get wives. It seemed that no women would marry these wild

men, in spite of the appeal they made to the neighboring tribes. At last they decided to capture wives. So they sent out an invitation to the Sabines, a nearby tribe, to come with their wives and daughters to a great festival and watch the Romans at their games and sports.

Capturing the Sabine women.—The Sabines came in crowds, unarmed and unsuspecting. In the midst of the games Romulus gave a signal, whereupon the Romans seized the women and carried them off in spite of their cries and struggles. The Sabines were in great rage, but could do nothing without their arms. They went back to their homes and prepared for war against the Romans. The war lasted a long time, but the Romans kept their wives.

The fate of Tarpeia.—After three years the Sabines bribed a Roman girl named Tarpeia to open the gates for them. She was a greedy girl and made them promise to give her what they had upon their left arms, thinking of the gold bracelets they wore. They promised and the gates were opened. But as the Sabines rushed in they threw the heavy shields from their left arms upon the poor girl instead of the gold bracelets she expected. Tarpeia fell crushed beneath the great weight of a hundred brass shields. She died at the foot of a cliff that has since been known as the Tarpeian Rock.

The Sabines and the Romans would now have had a deadly battle, but the women who had been stolen

and who had come to love their Roman lords, rushed between the armies, some of them holding babies in their arms, and implored the combatants to make peace. This was done and the two tribes were united into one.

The Eternal City.—Years passed and Rome grew larger and richer and stronger, until at one time it was the most important city in the world. The city of Rome itself became known throughout the world as the City of Seven Hills, and was also called the Eternal City.

Roman religion.—Rome gained many things from Greece. Its art, architecture, customs, literature, and especially its religion, are largely Grecian. The Romans had the same gods as the Greeks, giving them Roman names as we have already seen. They offered sacrifices to appease these gods when offended, or to implore their aid when necessary. They consulted oracles, and soothsayers, who told them of future events; they watched the flight of birds; they saw signs in the remains of slaughtered animals; they listened to the howling of wild beasts. From all these they thought the gods were speaking to them.

In the Temple of Vesta, the holy fire that was supposed to protect the city was kept burning by priestesses called the vestal virgins. If the fire went out or the virgins did wrong in any way, they were punished by being buried alive.

The Roman army.—As the eastern countries decayed in military power, Rome grew more and more warlike. Its army became a mighty fighting machine. After Alexander the Great died and his empire was divided, the Roman generals and the Roman soldiers were the ablest in the world. To be a Roman soldier was to be fearlessly brave, and regardless of death. At one time Rome was attacked by Porsena, king of Clusium. The Tiber was spanned by a wooden bridge leading into Rome, over which the approaching army threatened to enter the city. The consul decided this bridge must be cut down and called for volunteers to stand on the far side and fight the invaders, while others hewed the bridge down behind them.

Horatius at the bridge.—Horatius, a brave young soldier with two companions leaped upon the bridge and began to engage the oncoming hosts. Others behind him hewed at the wooden logs. His two companions fled back across the bridge, while Horatius fought on alone. Soon the bridge fell behind him and seeing that there was no longer any danger of the enemy crossing, the young Roman leaped into the river and swam back, amid the cheers of the soldiers. The people gave him a farm, and erected a statue in his honor.

Cincinnatus and the Aequians.—The Romans were hardly ever at peace. As soon as one nation was conquered they set about conquering another one,

and after one battle was fought they laid plans for another. Among the enemies of the Romans were the Aequians. At one time these warlike people surrounded the camp of the Romans and threatened to destroy the whole army. Five horsemen escaped and brought news of the peril to the senate at Rome. Only one man was able to save the army, and that

Horatius defends the bridge over the Tiber against the oncoming hosts of Porsena. The bridge is destroyed behind him, after which he swims to safety.

was Cincinnatus. He was an old general, tired of war, who had retired to his farm and devoted himself to plowing, sowing, and reaping.

The senators went to him and found him plowing in his field. They begged him to lead a fresh army against the Aequians. Cincinnatus agreed to go, and leaving his oxen hitched to a plow in his field,

went to Rome. He gathered an army and marched against the Aequians, and by his skillful movements completely overcame them. After defeating the enemy he went back to Rome, where he was given a great triumphal procession. Then he retired to his farm and lived as quietly and simply as he had done before he was called upon to save the city.

The invasion of the Gauls.—Among the fiercest enemies of the Romans were the Gauls, who lived to the north and northwest of Italy. They were tall and fierce; they robbed and killed everything as they went. They invaded Italy, defeated the Roman army, and marched against the city itself. The people fled for their lives, leaving the gates open, and the houses deserted. Only the old senators stayed behind, sitting solemn and still in the ivory chairs in the Forum.

The Gauls were amazed to find an empty city with no people in it and no army to defend it. They wandered about admiring the public buildings and temples, finer than anything they had ever seen. When they came to the Forum and saw the old men sitting as still as statues they were filled with awe. One of the barbarians plucked an old senator by the beard, who resented the insult by striking the Gaul on the hand with his wand of office.

With that the Gauls began a general massacre and killed all the senators. They then plundered and burnt the town. In this invasion, 390 B.C., many

records of the early history of Rome were lost.

A little army, however, had fled to the fortress on the hill called the Capitol. The Gauls could not easily capture it, for the Romans hurled heavy stones at them as they climbed the steep side of the hill. One night a Roman soldier crept down the hill by a secret path and made off to gather assistance. The Gauls discovered him but could not overtake him.

Geese save Rome from destruction.—Thinking to overcome the garrison, the barbarians planned to scale the steep rock and surprise them, by a path they had discovered. While the weary Roman soldiers slept the Gauls climbed the rock and were about to enter the fort when the sacred geese of Rome began to cackle loudly. This awoke the soldiers just in time for them to rush to the edge of the wall and hurl the invaders back. In this way the geese saved Rome from destruction. Shortly afterwards assistance arrived and the savage tribes were driven from Rome, but not before they had laid the city almost in ruins and received a large sum of money. The Romans returned to their houses and it was not long before the city was built on a scale larger and finer than ever.

7. THE WAR WITH CARTHAGE

After 500 years had passed the Romans had conquered all of Italy, and were seeking conquests in

other lands. About 250 B.C., when Alexander the Great had been dead for nearly seventy years and his kingdom divided, the splendid city of Carthage arose on the finest harbor in North Africa. The greed of the Romans for more conquests turned them toward this city.

The greatness of Carthage.—Carthage at that time was said to be the richest city in the world. Her walls were twenty-three miles in circumference. Her dominion extended over a large part of the northern coast of Africa, over half of Spain, the islands of Sardinia and Corsica, and half of Sicily. Three hundred cities paid her tribute. She regarded the Mediterranean as her domain, and sailors of other nations caught trespassing there were thrown into the sea. Her men were seafaring, her strength was in her fleet, and her boast was that she was mistress of the Mediterranean and would remain so.

Rome and Carthage at war.—The conflict was inevitable. Rome and Carthage went to war about Sicily. The war lasted twenty-three years. The Romans had no ships and were poor sailors, so that the war at first went against them. Then they began to build ships, using as a model a Carthaginian ship that had been wrecked on their shores. They built a fleet of 120 vessels in two months, equipped them with grappling hooks to hold the sides of the enemy's vessels, manned them with soldiers and rowers, and put to sea. The fleet of Carthage was

defeated and most of her ships were sunk. The Carthaginians, however, rebuilt their fleet, and the war continued.

After many years a Roman army invaded Africa under command of the consul Regulus. The Romans were defeated, and Regulus was made prisoner and carried to Carthage in irons. After fifteen years the Carthaginians grew weary of the war and sent Regulus back to Rome with offers of peace, making him promise to return if peace was not obtained.

Regulus' advice to the Romans.—Regulus appeared before the senators and instead of advising peace, the brave consul told them that Carthage was weary of the war and almost exhausted, that her ships were few, and her allies were mutinous. "Make no peace with Carthage," were his words. In spite of the entreaties of his friends, and the tears of his wife and child, he returned to Carthage as he had promised. When the people there heard what advice he had given to the senators at Rome they were so furious they put him to death with cruel tortures.

The war went on for seven or eight years longer, until both sides were exhausted by the struggle and a treaty of peace was agreed upon. This treaty lasted for over twenty years. It was broken by Rome seizing the islands of Sardinia and Corsica and by the Carthaginian general Hannibal advancing upon Roman cities in Spain.

Hannibal.—Hannibal is one of the great generals of history. When he was nine years of age his father, Hamilcar, led him to an altar and after telling him of the wrongs his country had endured, said,

Regulus, a Roman patriot, addresses the senators, advising them to "make no peace with Carthage."

"My son, swear eternal hatred of Rome." The youth laid his hands on the altar and swore as his father had told him. He followed his father in the wars, and became an able soldier and the idol of his followers. When he was twenty-six years old he took charge of the campaign in Spain, and began to move

against the Roman cities in retaliation for the seizure of Sardinia and Corsica.

Hamilcar takes the young Hannibal to the altar and makes him swear eternal hatred of Rome.

Hannibal invades Italy.—With an army of over a hundred thousand men, in the dead of winter, he

began to cross the Alps. It was a dangerous and painful enterprise. Forcing unknown passes, stumbling through snow and ice, for two terrible weeks his men froze and starved, until three-fourths of them died. With twenty-six thousand left he reached Italy, and began his wonderful campaign on Roman soil.

With this handful of soldiers, reinforced by the Gauls, Hannibal met the Roman armies and defeated them at all places. At the great battle of Cannae he defeated an army of 90,000 men, of which 60,000 were killed and 20,000 were made prisoners. It was said that Hannibal sent a bushel of gold rings back to Carthage, taken from dead Roman nobles.

At one time he ravaged the fields of Italy up to the very gates of Rome itself. The Romans were too much alarmed by his brilliant victories to attack him. They were so frightened by his approach that they shut themselves up in their city and for years afterwards the Roman mothers would frighten their children by saying, "Hannibal is at the gates."

The overthrow of Hasdrubal.—For sixteen years Hannibal held his own in Italy. At length he needed reinforcements and his brother Hasdrubal was sent to help him with a fresh army. But the Romans made a heroic effort to prevent the two armies coming together, and overthrew Hasdrubal completely. The first news Hannibal had of his brother's defeat was when a Roman soldier threw the head of Has-

drubal into the Carthaginian camp. Hannibal knew then that he could hold out no longer. Shortly afterwards he was recalled to Carthage, leaving with deep regret his enemy's country.

Defeat of Carthage.—The fortunes of war now changed. Carthage was almost exhausted with the war in Spain, and Rome gathered an army and invaded Africa. Hannibal met them and suffered his first and only defeat. Carthage was now at the mercy of her conqueror. Surrendering Spain, all the islands she held in the Mediterranean, her war elephants, and nearly all her ships, she sued for peace, promising not to wage another war without the consent of Rome. Rome was now the mistress of the West and no one disputed her sway over the Mediterranean.

Peace lasted for fifty years, and Rome extended her provinces far to the east, absorbing all the kingdoms of the empire of Alexander the Great. Her citizens settled in Spain, and her merchants traded in all ports. The Roman Empire extended in all directions and Roman influence was felt in all lands.

The return of Carthage.—Carthage also returned to her prosperity, though she owned less territory, and for many years kept the treaty with Rome. Her riches flowed back, so that travelers returning to Rome told of streets crowded with traders, of treasure houses full of wealth, of harbors thronged with ships. Rome grew jealous of this prosperity and

one of her orators was accustomed to close every speech he made with the words, "Carthage must be destroyed."

Occasion came at last by Carthage taking up arms against the prince of Numidia. That ruler had goaded the Carthaginians to desperation and they had repulsed him from their very gates. This gave the Romans an excuse to attack Carthage, for that city had agreed not to wage war without the consent of Rome.

Carthage was terrified and offered abject submission, but Rome was determined upon her destruction. A Roman army came to the gates of Carthage and demanded that the walls be dismantled, the arsenals stripped of all their supplies, and all the shipping surrendered. This the Carthaginians hastened to do, thinking that was the end. But the Romans now demanded that all the people move ten miles inland and abandon their town.

The destruction of Carthage.—The Carthaginians, indignant at this treatment, blazed with wrath. Gaining a few days' time the walls were hastily repaired and a four years' siege began that brought Carthage to the point of starvation. When the city was taken only a miserable remnant was left of all the proud population. For many days the city was given over to plunder. Then its houses were burnt, its walls thrown completely down, the ground was plowed up and sowed with salt. Not a vestige remained. At

last Carthage was destroyed and Rome was mistress of Africa.

The Roman Empire.—Cruel as this seemed to be, yet it was fortunate for European civilization. Carthage was an oriental city and stood in the way of Roman progress. Her ideas were eastern, and could not accord with western methods. Europe needed

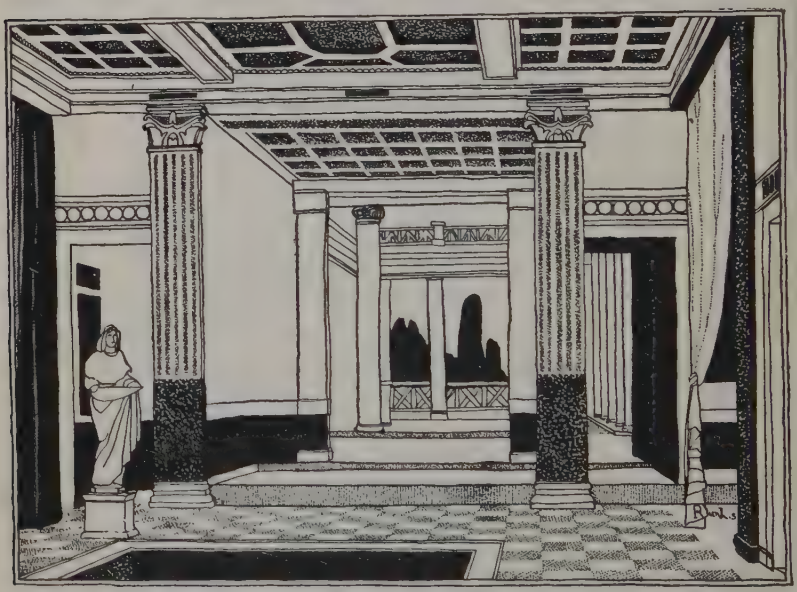
At one time Rome was mistress of the world, and her empire extended over all lands she desired to conquer.

the Roman thought in law and government upon which to found its own empire and Carthage would have been a menace. With Carthage out of the way and all the East conquered, the Roman Empire practically covered the world.

8. ROMAN LIFE AND CUSTOMS

Rome was now the mistress of the world. Within her walls lived over a million people. In order to

profit by her conquests she began to absorb the treasures of all lands. Greece contributed largely to Roman thought and manner of life. Greek was spoken by the wealthy classes; Greek statuary adorned Roman houses; Greek poets wrote plays for



The Roman palaces were built after the fashion of the Greeks. Here the nobles lived in ease and idleness, supported by thousands of slaves captured in war.

the Roman people; Greek customs became fashionable. The proudest boast that one could make was to be a Roman citizen.

Roman life.—Owing to the many wars there were three times as many slaves as there were free-born citizens. These slaves were made to till the soil,

build roads and public buildings, and wait upon their masters. The rich nobles gave themselves up to ease and luxury. Their palaces were magnificent, their tables held every delicacy, their dress and draperies were gaudy beyond description.

Roman public baths.—To provide a place for the leisure hours of the wealthy classes, the Romans built great public baths of marble which were like club houses. In these great buildings were shower baths, and swimming pools of hot and cold water, where the men bathed seven or eight times a day, after which they were rubbed by their slaves with sweet-smelling oil. Connected with the baths were libraries, theatres, and lounging rooms decorated with statuary and hung with draperies. It seemed the custom of the Romans to build baths wherever they founded a colony. The ruins of these baths are still found in many places in Europe.

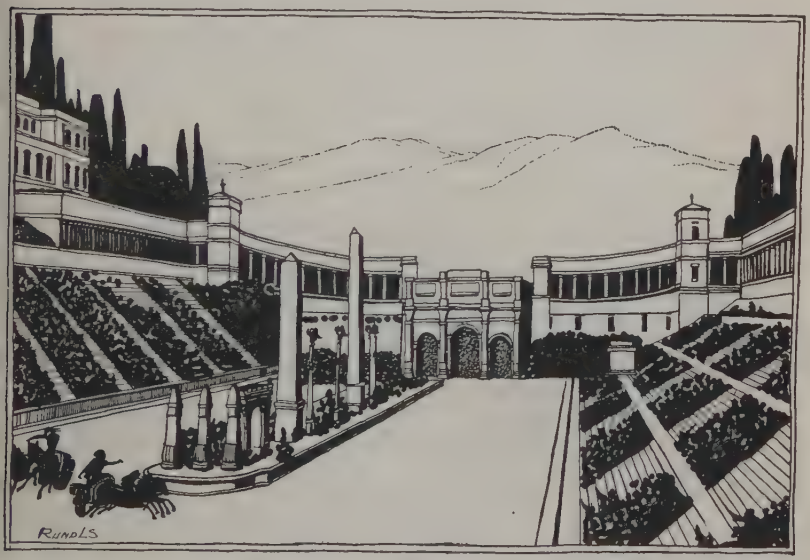
Roman Forum.—The Roman Forum, which at first was an open market place in the center of the city and a common meeting ground for the people, was filled with temples, statuary, and arches, while great palaces looked down on it from all sides. Here the people gathered for elections and public discussions. Here the orators spoke to the crowds that assembled. Here the senate met to decide upon matters of state. The Forum itself became the center of Roman life, and in the days of its glory was probably the most wonderful gathering of buildings in the world.

Nearby the Forum was the Circus Maximus, which was an enormous stadium built of marble, and seating 120,000 spectators. It was a third of a mile long, and over six hundred feet wide. It was adorned with paintings, statues, and columns, and given over to the pleasures of the people.

The ruins of the Roman Forum indicate the magnificence of its original buildings and temples. It was the gathering place of the people and the center of Roman life and history.

Chariot races.—One of the favorite amusements of the circus was chariot racing. The finest and fastest horses that could be found were hitched to the costliest chariots that could be made. The drivers were trained to racing, even young nobles themselves engaging in the sport. At a word the horses were off, the crowds roared, the chariots dashed forward,

making perilous turns at marvelous speed, handled with incredible skill. Sometimes a chariot was overturned, or a wheel was broken, or a driver dislodged from his stand. But the race swept on until the victor came over the line to get a crown of laurel.



The Circus Maximus in Rome was said to seat 120,000 persons. It was used for chariot racing.

The Romans were fond of witnessing combats; the bloodier they were the more they liked them. It is related that three hundred lions fought one another and were killed in one day, and that five hundred men fought twenty elephants. Men also fought wild beasts in the arena and the crowds shouted loudest when the beasts slew the men.

Gladiatorial combats.—The greatest excitement was in the fights of the gladiators when man fought man. Foreign slaves were trained for the arena, young nobles often fought as gladiators, and even the emperors entered the contest. The emperor Commodus was a famous gladiator, claiming to have killed twelve hundred men for the pleasure of the Roman populace. The probability is that his antagonists were chosen for his sword, and that the number was greatly exaggerated.

Armed with short swords, or with a trident and net, the gladiators encountered one another with intent to kill. Each was young, strong, active, brave, and thoroughly trained. The vast crowd looked on silently, at first, but became noisy as the battle progressed. When one gladiator was down the other looked up to the seats where sat the vestal virgins, to know the fate of his victim. If the virgins clapped their hands the man was allowed to go free, but if they thrust their hands forward and turned their thumbs down then the man was slain, and his bloody body dragged by slaves from the sands of the arena.

The Colosseum.—Another of the great buildings for the amusement of the people was the Colosseum, completed eighty years after the birth of Christ. It was said to hold 80,000 people. On the day it was opened five thousand wild beasts were killed in combat. Like all other great Roman buildings, the work was done entirely by slaves, who died by the hun-

dreds at the terrible task to which they were set. In addition to all kinds of bloody battles between beasts and men, and man with man, the arena of the Colosseum was at times flooded with water and seafights between vessels were engaged in. In the early days of Christianity the Colosseum was the scene of the death of many martyrs who were given over to hungry lions for the delight of the people.

The ruins of the Colosseum at Rome, the greatest amphitheatre which Roman magnificence ever erected. It was built about the year 80 A. D., and was used for sports, gladiatorial combats, and was the scene of the martyrdom of many early Christians. It was 1,680 feet in circumference and 157 feet high.

Roman roads.—Among the many things for which Rome is famous are the Roman roads. These also were built by the slaves captured in the wars, many of whom worked in the marble quarries gathering stone, while others transported it to the places needed, and others placed the stones in position.

The most famous of these roads was the Appian Way leading out of Rome to the lower part of Italy.

It was graded and firmly built of layers of stone, the surface being huge slabs of smooth rock fitted together with great accuracy. For many miles this beautiful road was lined on both sides with costly villas, or country houses, while streams of chariots, horsemen, wagons, and men on foot went their way to and from the city.

Other roads led in all directions. Mountains were tunneled, marshes were drained and spanned, hills were cut down, rivers were crossed by bridges, until the Roman roads brought all cities in communication with the capital. Truly all roads led to Rome, and that was what the Romans intended. Today the remains of some of these highways are in good condition, showing the care and costliness of their construction.

A Roman triumph.—Over these roads marched the victorious army returning home for the general to receive a Roman triumph. A public holiday was declared and the streets and houses were hung with banners and garlands. The populace put on their festive clothes, bore armfuls of flowers, and stood in the streets along the path of the procession.

A blast of bugles announced the entrance of the victorious general, who was clothed in royal purple, rode in a gilded chariot drawn by four white horses, wore a laurel wreath on his head, and carried an ivory wand in his hand. Accompanying him were the noble prisoners, and the slaves captured in the war,

chained together and guarded by soldiers. Then came the spoils of the war, gold and silver vases, baskets of money and jewels, rich household furniture, pictures, and whatever else could be transported. Then followed wagons containing all the weapons of the enemy, and finally the victorious army itself.

The general was very proud of his victory and was grateful for all the applause of the multitude. To prevent his becoming too vain and forgetting his place, a slave was appointed to stand behind him in his gilded chariot and to whisper to him every now and then, "Remember you are only a man after all." But this warning was unheeded by many of those who were given a triumph, and many a victorious general was afterwards slain or banished for his ambition and for his vanity.

9. JULIUS CAESAR

Caesar, a lawmaker.—Among the great men in Roman history is Julius Caesar. He chose law as his first profession, and then politics. By his gracious manners, aided by his friends, and with the liberal use of money, he rose from various offices, until at the age of forty-three he was elected consul of Rome. In this office he succeeded in having many laws made for the benefit of the people, such as a distribution of public lands to soldiers, laws to prevent the plunder of the public treasury, and the

bribery of judges, and laws to protect citizens from violence. He was a wise lawmaker in that he favored the people rather than the rich and aristocratic classes. Of course the aristocracy feared and distrusted him, saying he had those laws passed not so much to help the people, as to make them help Caesar.

At the close of his term of office the senate gave him all the woods and forests of the west, an unknown country full of wild tribes as yet unsubdued, and abounding in perils. The senate then sent him to subdue the Gauls, hoping they had seen the last of him.

The Gauls.—The Gauls were barbarians, who lived in what is now France, Switzerland, Holland, Belgium, and part of Germany. They were wild and fierce, and millions in number. Already Rome was beginning to fear that these hordes would some day overrun Italy, and attack the city itself as they had once done over three hundred years before. They were glad to send Caesar with his legions to subdue them if he could. And it was in Gaul that Caesar showed himself to be one of the great generals of all time.

The senate gave him unlimited power over Gaul for five years. Afterwards they extended the time five years more. It was a task that Caesar loved. The danger and hardship and warfare appealed to his simple, hardy, and warlike nature, though he had

spent the better part of his life as a lawyer and an orator at Rome. His health was perfect, his habits temperate, and his energy unbounded. His conquest of Gaul is one of the notable achievements in military history.

The legions of Caesar.—His legions were trained to all kinds of labor. They could build bridges, cut through forests, drain swamps, and march with an eighty pound pack for each man. They learned how to mend their own shoes, repair their own clothes, cook their own food gathered from the woods or taken from the barbarians themselves, and could sleep comfortably in the pouring rain.

Caesar lived as his soldiers lived. No one of them could ride a horse, ford a stream, climb a mountain, wield an axe or a spade better than he. He ate the same food, endured the same hardships, and braved the same dangers as the men that followed him. As a result his men adored him and never complained.

The Gauls were brave people and hard to conquer. Their numbers were large, they were well armed, and fought with great courage. When beaten in one place they appeared in another, they made treaties only to break them, and surrendered only to sneak away and begin a warfare again.

Conquest of Gaul.—All the way from the Pyrenees to the Alps, Caesar and his legions fought the Gauls for ten years, and were everywhere successful. He lost but one battle, and that was not his fault. As

a result he conquered the Gauls completely, and then showed to them such a moderate policy that they were the firm allies of Rome, and their country became one of its richest provinces. Caesar did not save Italy from being overrun at last by the barbarians, but he postponed their invasion for two hundred years. The story of his campaigns and conquests he wrote down in simple Latin, known as his *Commentaries,* which is used as a textbook in the schools of today.

Caesar and Pompey.—Caesar was now immensely popular with the Roman people, but the senate was jealous of his greatness and of his renown. They feared his legions and dreaded his ambition. His greatest rival was Pompey, who wished to command the forces of the Empire. This divided Rome into two parties. Those with Caesar were the army and the people; those with Pompey and the senate were the rich and the powerful aristocracy.

Crossing the Rubicon.—Caesar deserved a triumph on his return, but the senate was afraid to give it to him for fear he would seize the government. They recalled him from Gaul and ordered him to disband his army. He refused to disband his forces. An army was raised and put under command of Pompey. The war in Gaul being over Caesar crossed the Alps at the head of his army. When he came to the little stream known as the Rubicon, he knew he had to lay down his arms as the senate had

ordered or be declared a public enemy. He paused for some time and seeing no chance to make peace with Pompey and the senate he said, "The die is cast," and then crossed the Rubicon with his army.

Pompey was so poor a general and so frightened at this action of Caesar that he fled to Greece, leaving his opponent to march to Rome. Here Caesar seized the treasures, paid money to his troops, sent an army after Pompey, and himself went to Spain, which country he quickly subdued.

Julius Caesar (100-44 B. C.), lawyer, soldier, statesman, orator, and author, who for many years was virtually dictator of Rome.

The battle of Pharsalia.—Caesar and Pompey finally met in the great battle of Pharsalia, in Greece. Caesar had his legions and Pompey had an army made up of the nobility of both countries. The battle raged with great fury, but the legions of Caesar were unconquerable, and Pompey again fled, this time to Egypt. But as he was leaving his vessel he was murdered by a messenger from the Egyptian king to whom he was fleeing for protection. When Caesar was given the bloody head of his rival, instead of rejoicing, he wept.

Now that Pompey was dead, Caesar proceeded to conquer Egypt at his leisure in order to place Cleopatra on the throne of the Ptolemies. It was during his campaign against the Egyptians that the magnificent library at Alexandria was burned, and valuable manuscripts of the ancients lost to the world.

Caesar Imperator.—Caesar now returned to Rome, where he was awarded the greatest triumph that any conquering general had ever had. He was made Imperator, a word which later meant Emperor. He was virtually the dictator of Rome, his word was law, his orders were obeyed. So completely was he in control that his very name is used today in the form of Czar and Kaiser.

For ten years he was dictator or ruler of Rome. His ambition was satisfied in every particular. He had conquered the Gauls, overcome his rivals, won the applause of the people, and was absolute ruler over the Roman Empire. His enemies began to fear that he would be offered a crown and accept it, making his family perpetual rulers, and doing away with the republic.

Among those who feared his ambition and distrusted his power were Cassius and Brutus. They were both his friends at first, but were finally alarmed at what Caesar might become.

The death of Caesar.—A plot was made by some of the senators to murder him. On the day the plot was to be carried out, he went to the senate, and was

standing at the foot of Pompey's statue, reading a petition that had been handed to him. A signal was given, and several of the conspirators approached him, and one of them struck him a blow with a dagger. Caesar turned to defend himself, but they were too many for him. When he saw Brutus, his friend, among those who would murder him he said sadly, "And you too, Brutus!" Then he covered his face with his cloak and fell at the base of Pompey's statue.

Thus perished Julius Caesar in the year 44 B.C., when he was fifty-five years old, the greatest general, the best statesman, and the sternest ruler recorded in the annals of Roman history.

His body was exposed in the Forum, where it lay in state for the people to see. His will was read to them, giving to the public the use of his private gardens, and to every poor man a certain sum of money. The people were inconsolable at his loss and enraged at his murderers. The conspirators escaped death only by fleeing from the city.

10. THE RISE OF CHRISTIANITY

The Christian Era.—The Christian Era began with the birth of Jesus in the little village of Bethlehem of Judea. He was the son of a poor carpenter, living in an obscure part of the Roman Empire, and yet he is the most conspicuous figure in the history of the world. But little is known of his boyhood. When he was thirty years of age, he began to

preach throughout Judea, and so wonderful were his words that crowds followed him everywhere and the priests and rulers feared his influence with the people.

The ministry of Jesus.—The Jews were looking for a Messiah, who, as a mighty leader, would drive out the Roman conquerors and restore the ancient empire of the Hebrew kings. Jesus declared his kingdom was not of this world, to the disappointment and perplexity of some of his followers. The priests had him arraigned for stirring up sedition among the people. The Roman officer, Pontius Pilate, found no truth in the charge, but allowed the priests to have their way.

His crucifixion.—The result was that Jesus was crucified according to the custom of the Romans in punishing criminals. His ministry had lasted three years, during which he had spoken many parables, delivered sermons, and worked miracles, which are recorded in the Gospels, or writings of his disciples, and preserved to us in the New Testament. Short as are the Gospels they form today the basis of the Christian religion and civilization of the world.

After his death his disciples continued to preach his doctrine. In spite of persecution his followers grew in number and his teachings in influence. At first it was thought that the new religion was for the Jews only, but at length it was realized that the message of Jesus was for the gentiles also, and for the whole world.

Early converts.—Christianity spread rapidly over the Roman Empire. At first its converts were mainly among the poor. Women especially welcomed the new faith, for it gave them a dignity and a value that they did not have under the pagan forms. A religion that taught mercy and forbearance and loving one's neighbor as one's self did not appeal to the rich and ruling classes, but did appeal to the poor and down-trodden. Therefore the common people embraced the new religion gladly, but it took several hundred years for its principles to be understood by the intolerant nobility that had little sympathy with those who toiled and suffered.

Persecuting the Christians.—For a long time the early Christians were persecuted by priests and rulers. Their meetings were broken up, their property was taken away, they were driven into exile. Often they were stoned to death, or given over to wild beasts to be devoured, or tortured beyond the power of human endurance. At first every means was used to stamp out the new religion.

This was done for several reasons. The Christians loudly proclaimed that there was but one God, and to worship any other was to worship idols. This aroused the wrath of the pagan priests and their followers. The Christians held secret meetings for worship. This aroused the suspicions of the rulers that these meetings might be for political purposes. The Christians kept away from all public amusements

The early Christians were cruelly persecuted by being thrown to the lions. Under Nero the Christians were tarred with pitch and burned as torches to light the imperial gardens, while others were clothed in the skins of animals to be torn by the dogs for the amusement of the mob.

and games, saying they were sinful or immoral. This made the people declare they were unsocial, and that they hated the human race.

The Christians did not wish to go to war, nor join

in celebrating the triumphs of returning armies. They led clean, pure, honest lives that were a rebuke to the wickedness around them. For these reasons they were feared and hated by those who were not of their faith. Hence the long and dreadful years of persecution. In spite of this the converts increased in number, the churches prospered, and the new religion found its way into all parts of the Empire, and even among the barbarous tribes.

Spread of Christianity.—As the years passed the number and the power of the Christians increased. At the end of three hundred years they were so numerous, and included so many of the noble families of the Empire, that emperors themselves began to take notice of their influence. In the year 311, during a civil war in Rome, the emperor Galerius grudgingly published an Edict of Toleration, in which he allowed the Christians to hold their own worship and forbade their being disturbed.

Constantine.—Under the emperor Constantine a greater recognition was given to Christians. It has been related that during one of the wars of political parties, when Constantine and his army were moving on Rome, that the leader himself fell asleep and in his dream Jesus appeared to him and told him to inscribe a cross on all his standards, declaring "In this symbol you shall conquer." Constantine adopted the symbol and the words, and his army was victorious.

Religious toleration.—In the year 313 he issued the famous Edict of Milan, in which he said, "We grant to the Christians and to all others free choice to worship any god they wish." This edict of religious toleration put an end to pagan persecution. Christianity became a recognized and an established religion.

Influence of the Christian religion.—The teachings of Jesus and the principles of his followers had a profound influence upon the pagan world. A greater regard for individual rights was created. Rulers became less harsh with their subjects, and masters more considerate of their slaves. The bloody sports of the arena, the sacrifices of human beings in combats, the exposing of deformed and undesirable infants to wild beasts, were all abandoned. Suicide, which had become common practice and was looked upon with approval, became a crime. In fact the gentle influence of the Christian faith greatly softened the feelings and conduct of men in their relations to one another.

What the world owes to the Romans.—Before we turn to another chapter in the history of the world, let us see what we owe to the ancient civilization of Rome and the spread of the Roman Empire.

1. Through the Romans much of Greek art and architecture, and many of the mechanical devices of the ancients were preserved and handed down to other nations. It was also through Rome that

Christianity was passed on to the western world.

2. The Romans adopted the use of the arch, and taught the world its value and strength in constructing bridges, aqueducts, and large buildings. They were great builders of roads, baths, temples, tombs, and public edifices, many of which remain today in a fair state of preservation.

3. Rome taught the world the value of government and law. Her lawmakers were wise and prudent. The laws were designed to protect property, uphold the rights of the common people, defend women, children, and slaves, and make the government strong. The old Roman laws are still observed in many lands.

4. Rome gave to the world the Latin language, in the form of history, philosophy, poetry, drama, and oratory. Some of the noblest writings of the human mind were done by the scholars, poets, and philosophers of the time when Rome was in her glory. A knowledge of the Latin language is still considered necessary to a complete understanding of English, as well as of other modern tongues. At the present day the scientific names of animals and plants are in the Latin language, and physicians use Latin terms in writing prescriptions for medicine. Many words of the English language, as well as the words of the French, Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese languages are of Latin origin. Latin is taught in schools the world over.

5. We owe our calendar largely to the Romans. The Romans first divided the year into ten months, March being their first month, and the last four, September, October, November, December, being the seventh, eighth, ninth, and tenth months, as their names indicate. They soon adopted the Egyptian division of the year into twelve months, however, adding January and February. During the reign of Caesar, the calendar was adjusted to correspond to the seasons, the present seventh month being named July for Julius Caesar. Later on the present eighth month was named August for Augustus Caesar. The months were then divided into so many days each, very much as we have it at the present time. Every fourth year was a leap year, in which one day was added to February. This was known as the Julian Calendar. In 1582 a slight change was made in counting the leap years. This was done by the order of Pope Gregory XIII. It became known as the Gregorian Calendar, and is used generally throughout the world today.

6. We owe the letters of our alphabet to the Romans. The device of using symbols for sounds originated with the Phoenicians, but the shapes of the letters of the English alphabet, as well as those of most European nations, came from the Roman modification of the ancient symbols.

TOPICS FOR REVIEW

The beginnings of Rome.—The first settlers in Italy. Romulus and Remus. Founding of Rome. How the early Romans obtained wives. The story of Tarpeia. Growth of Rome. Roman religion. The vestal virgins. The Roman army. Story of Horatius. Story of Cincinnatus. The Gauls. The invasion of the Gauls. How the geese saved Rome.

The war with Carthage.—The rise of Carthage; her greatness and extent. The first encounter. The capture of Regulus; his advice to the senate. The boyhood of Hannibal. Crossing the Alps. Invasion of Italy. The fate of Hasdrubal. The defeat of Carthage. Peace and growth of Roman Empire. The return of Carthage. Roman jealousy. Destruction of Carthage. Effect of Roman conquest.

Roman life and customs.—The nobles and the slaves. Roman public baths. The Roman Forum. The Circus Maximus. Chariot racing. Gladiators and their combats. The Colosseum. Roman roads; the Appian Way. A Roman triumph.

Julius Caesar.—The rise of Caesar; the laws he had made; the jealousy of the wealthy classes. The Gauls; their territory; their number; their habits. Caesar sent to conquer the Gauls; his legions; his own life in Gaul. The conquest of Gaul; Caesar's *Commentaries*. Caesar and Pompey. The recall of Caesar; crossing the Rubicon. The battle of Pharsalia; the fate of Pompey. Conquest of Egypt. Caesar becomes Imperator. The fears and jealousies he aroused. The death of Caesar.

The rise of Christianity.—The Christian Era. The ministry of Jesus, his arraignment and crucifixion. The new doctrine of Christian forbearance; its appeal to women

and to the poor. Persecuting the early Christians; why it was done. Growth of Christianity; the Edict of Toleration. The vision of Constantine; the Edict of Milan. The influence of the Christian religion.

What the world owes to the Romans. Preservation of Greek art and architecture; spread of Christianity; engineering; construction; government and law; the Latin language; the calendar; the letters of the alphabet.

SUBJECTS FOR DISCUSSION

What favorable conditions made Rome a great city? Did the Romans treat the Sabines right? Did Tarpeia deserve her fate? How did Horatius show his patriotism? Roman jealousy of Carthage. The sacrifice of Regulus. The influence of Hamilcar over his son. What the world gained by the overthrow of Carthage.

Compare the hardships of the slaves with the indulgence of the wealthy classes. What debasing effect must gladiatorial combat have had upon the observers? Why was Julius Caesar popular with the masses? What made him a great general? What danger lies in great power and popularity? Why was Jesus discredited by his own people? What was the difference between the Christian religion and the pagan religion? Why has the Christian religion had such an influence upon mankind?

CHAPTER III

THE EARLY MIDDLE AGES

11. THE DOWNFALL OF ROME

The barbarous Teutons.—To the north of the Roman Empire, beyond the Danube River and the Alps Mountains, lay a vast territory of almost unexplored country, inhabited by a half-civilized people whom the Romans called Teutons though they were divided into many tribes. They were the descendants of the Gauls whom Caesar had fought so valiantly four hundred years before. They were a barbarous race, tall, flaxen-haired, fair of skin, with blue eyes, and of a warlike disposition. They lived in small villages, composed of rude huts. They roamed the dark and gloomy forests as far as the Baltic Sea. They hunted, fished, and fought pretty much as the North American Indians once did in this country.

Their religion.—They had a rude religion of many gods. Woden, the war god was, of course, the chief object of worship. Thor was the god of storms. Freya was the goddess of love and fruit-bearing. We have the names of these deities preserved to us in the days of our week, Wednesday being Woden's day, Thursday being Thor's day, and Friday being

A Teuton family group in early times.

Freya's day. The people of the present day who live in the northern part of Europe are descendants of the ancient Teutons and are still called the Teutonic races.

Mingling of Teuton and Roman.—For many years these barbarians had been hovering on the edge of the civilized world. Every now and then some fierce tribe would break through the barriers and overrun portions of the Roman Empire, but always the disciplined legions of Rome would drive them back to their forest home. At length, however, some tribes of the Teutons were admitted peaceably to Roman territory, and were absorbed in the Roman villages. The emperor hired these sturdy men as soldiers, the rich employed them as farmers, and the nobles bought them for household slaves. In this way there was a gradual mixing of the Romans and barbarians.

The coming of the Visigoths.—In the year 376 a whole tribe of these Teutonic barbarians, called the Visigoths or West Goths, appeared on the Danube, bringing their flocks and herds, their wives and children. They were fleeing from the wild Huns of Tartary, and begged to be allowed to settle on the lands of the Romans. Valens, who was then emperor, gave them permission to settle south of the Danube, provided they gave up their arms. Roman agents were to provide them with food until they could make a harvest. But the agents were so corrupt that they kept the supplies and allowed the

Goths to keep their arms, with the result that two years after their coming the Goths arose in wrath, and ravaged all the country.

Alaric captures Rome.—Thirty years later the Goths arose again under Alaric, a young and ambitious leader, who led his wild hordes even into Greece, where he sacked Sparta, Corinth, and Argos. Then marching into Italy he captured Rome itself, and for five days the city was given over to pillage and spoil by the fierce leader and his hosts. The barbarians now found that the Roman legions were no longer unconquerable. Weakened by wealth, indolence, and indulgence, the once strong armies of the proud city were no match for the hardy warriors who swarmed across the Danube and Rhine in great numbers and established themselves in various parts of the Empire.

Other tribes found kingdoms.—The West Goths founded a kingdom in Spain; the East Goths established themselves in Italy; the Burgundians settled in the valleys of the Rhone; the Angles and Saxons took possession of Britain; the Franks moved into Gaul; the Vandals, fiercest of all tribes, moved over to Africa and founded the kingdom of Carthage. All of these were tribes of the Teutons. The Vandals were so wild that they would not settle quietly in their kingdom but began to ravage the Mediterranean coasts with their pirate crews, until the word vandalism became a synonym for cruel and wanton destruction.

The Vandals marched over into Italy and seized Rome itself. For fourteen days they rioted in the ancient capital, taking back with them shiploads of rich spoils from that now almost helpless city—spoils that Rome itself in former days had plundered from the rest of the world.

These barbarous tribes, as they moved in and settled on the Roman lands, mingled with the Romans they found in their territory. They adopted some of their customs and made the Romans adopt some of theirs. They set up governments in southern Europe more or less under the control and direction of Rome, and laid the foundations of the nations and governments as we know them today.

Attila the Hun.—About the middle of the fifth century a common ruin threatened Romans and barbarians alike. Out of the East there passed into Europe a vast army of terrible Huns led by Attila, whose fierce warlike habits earned him the name of the Scourge of God.

He was only twenty-one years old when he became king of the wild tribe that swarmed over the steppes of Asia. He was short, ill-formed, with a big head and flat nose, and with a habit of rolling his eyes to inspire terror in all those at whom he gazed. His followers were lean, grim, and heavily bearded. They rode their horses like demons, and were seldom out of the saddle. They wielded spear, axe, and sword with ruthless ferocity.

Over half a million Huns led by Attila moved over Europe. The Rhine was no barrier, and Gaul was invaded. Towns were attacked and destroyed, and the inhabitants slain without mercy. The people fled as the Huns pursued. Twenty towns were in ruins before the Romans and the Goths could assemble an army to meet the terrible scourge.

The battle of Chalons.—On the plains of Chalons (A.D. 451) the Romans and Goths under Aetius and Theodoric made a stand against Attila. The battle that followed was one of the decisive battles of the world. The fate of Europe hung in the balance. That day was to decide whether western civilization should work its way onward, or be overwhelmed by eastern barbarity. At first it seemed as if the Huns would be victorious. With awful war cries and brandishing of spears they broke through the Roman ranks, slew Theodoric, and drove back their opponents. But the son of the slain king, enraged at the death of his father, descended like a thunderbolt on the flanks of the advancing Huns and stopped their progress.

The Romans rallied, the Huns gave way, and when night came the invaders were in full flight for the Rhine, leaving all their baggage behind them. The Huns retreated slowly back to their wilderness and the eastern invasion was over.

Breaking up of the Roman Empire.—The Roman Empire during the fifth century was invaded and

THE GERMANIC KINGDOMS ON ROMAN SOIL
North Sea
Baltic Sea
Black Sea
SLAVS
HUNS
SAXONS
Thuringians
ALAMANNI Till 496
KINGDOM OF THE FRANKS
BURGUNDIANS 443-534
KINGDOM OF THE WEST GOTHS
Lombards
Lombards Till 567
Gepidae Till 567
THE EAST GOTHS 493-553
THE GREEK ROMAN EMPIRE
Vandals
Vandals
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
VANDALS 429-534
KINGDOM OF THE SUEVI 415-711
CANTABRIA
Brittany
Angles
Saxons
Jutes
Britons
ATLANTIC OCEAN

occupied by northern tribes of Teutons in all its parts. The great structure was finally broken up into small kingdoms and principalities under rude and barbaric rulers. And yet out of this barbaric mixture with the old civilization of Rome have come some of the modern nations of Europe. The Roman Empire was a great reservoir into which flowed all the streams of Grecian and oriental life and culture, and out of which flowed many streams of modern history.

The new rulers of the many little kingdoms were densely ignorant. Few of them could read, write, or even sign their names. They cared little for literature and art, and made no effort to preserve or carry on the culture they found among the people they had conquered.

We generally date the beginning of the Middle Ages with the downfall of the Roman Empire, about the year 476.

Beginnings of modern languages.—The languages of the various tribes were mixed with the language of the Romans. New words were added, pronunciations were changed according to the tribe that occupied the territory. In this way a number of modern languages had their origin. Dialects sprung up that gradually grew into French, Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian. The original territory of the Teutons, where there were few Roman people, kept for the most part its own language, which today

is the German language. English is largely a mixture of the language of the Teutons or Saxons, modified by the ancient French.

The Dark Ages.—Thus the ancient empire of Rome fell apart. The culture, refinement, art, and literature of that great nation were overwhelmed and obscured by the rude savages who cared little for the glories of Rome and her people. For several centuries afterward civilization seemed at a standstill. The new rulers cared nothing for schools. They were more concerned in their petty wars than in anything else. Learning was abandoned, and the only hope for literature was to preserve what Rome had already produced. The Dark Ages had settled upon the western world, and the slowly forming nations of Europe groped in ignorance and strife.

The Franks were tall, fair of skin, flaxen-haired, with blue eyes, and were of a warlike disposition.

There was preserved, however, a wholesome respect for the Roman laws. The barbarians were quick to see the advantage of well ordered government. The Roman code made by Justinian, called the Justinian Code, was an orderly body of laws put into clear, concise, and compact form, which the

rulers were glad to adopt, and which forms the basis of many of the codes of the present day.

Best of all the Church lived on. The rude conquerors generally had but an imperfect notion of the deeper meaning of the Christian religion, but there were some who embraced its faith. The priests and monks kept alive the ancient principles, preached righteousness and correct living, and stood for peace and industry.

It was a long night in the history of Europe, out of which the nations were to emerge, bringing with them much of the inheritance of both Romans and Teutons, and the best qualities of both elements.

12. THE KINGDOM OF THE FRANKS

Clovis and Syagrius.—The first leader to unite the smaller kingdoms into one great empire was Clovis. His father was the chief of a small tribe on the lower Rhine. When he was still a boy his father died, leaving to him the leadership of his tribe.

There was a governor, named Syagrius, who ruled over a neighboring province, and who looked with contempt on the boy Clovis. He set up a little kingdom, calling himself the Prince of Soissons. Clovis declared that no governor should be a prince in his neighborhood if he could help it. He raised an army and though only fifteen years old, he met Syagrius and defeated him.

The governor in dismay fled to Spain, taking refuge

with the Visigoths. Clovis demanded his return, which was immediately granted. Whereupon the boy king had his rival put to death according to the fashion of those barbarous days.

Clovis conquers France.—When Clovis was twenty years of age he began his career of conquest and

Clovis, when 20 years of age, begins at the battle of Soissons in the year 486 a career of conquest that establishes the kingdom of the Franks over a large part of Europe.

plunder. He was a brutal and ruthless conqueror, but a great general and a shrewd leader. He made up his mind to conquer all the country and make himself king of all France. His warriors rallied gladly to his battle call. The hosts marched through the country southward, conquering everything in their way, and adding the conquered armies to their own forces. Churches particularly were the objects

of their spoil. Though France was largely a heathen country, and Clovis himself a worshiper of the heathen gods of the Teutons, still there were many Christian churches here and there in the towns. These the invaders despoiled, taking gold and silver crosses and ornaments, rich altar cloths, and rare vases.

The vase at Soissons.—The spoils of battle and the riches of plundered towns belonged to the conquerors, and it was the rule to put everything together and divide it out by lot. When the invaders came to Rheims, they seized a costly and beautiful vase which Clovis himself desired for his own. When the army reached Soissons, he said to his soldiers, "Take what else you like, but leave the vase to me. I wish it for my share of the booty."

There was one soldier who objected, and said in a surly manner, "Let the king have what comes to him and no more." When the king objected the soldier seized his battle-axe and struck the vase, breaking it in pieces.

The king said nothing, but did not forget the insult, nor the man who had offered it. Later on at a muster of the army he found fault with the soldier's armor. "Your lance and sword and axe are not clean. They are not fit for battle." Saying which he seized the man's battle-axe and threw it on the ground. The soldier in astonishment stooped over to pick it up. Whereupon the king raised his own

A rebellious soldier at Soissons crushes a valuable vase taken with the spoils at Rheims. Later on Clovis crushes the soldier's skull, saying, "Thus you did to the vase at Soissons."

axe and with a heavy blow crushed in the skull of the man before him. Then he quietly said, "Thus you did to the vase at Soissons." In such way did the kings of those days maintain authority over their subjects.

Clovis and Clotilda.—On went the conquering hosts southward. They were in no hurry, for their enemies could not cope with the invaders. Town after town submitted to the dominion of the young and ambitious king. In a short while Clovis became master of a territory much larger than France is today. He was the first of the Franks. He then wished to marry, and his mind turned toward Clotilda, the young and beautiful daughter of a former king of Burgundy. She was a Christian, and as gentle as she was beautiful.

Clovis sent a message to her asking her for her hand in marriage. The princess was pleased with the prospect, and in spite of her father's fears and protests, departed with her companions and was married at Soissons. The marriage was a happy one, though the queen grieved at seeing her husband worshiping the heathen gods, while she herself was a Christian.

A number of years afterwards the Germans arose and threatened to drive the Franks out of the land they had conquered. A great battle was fought near Strassburg in which the French were hard pressed. Clovis in despair did not know how to save his army.

His mind turned to his wife's religion, and on the battlefield he cried out, "Oh, Christ, whom Clotilda worships, I call upon Thee. All other gods have forsaken me and there seems no other power to save me and my army. Give me the victory this day, and I shall be baptized in Thy name."

Turning again to the battle, he raised his war cry and rallied his discouraged men. The onslaught was too furious for the Germans to resist. Their king was killed, the troops fled in disorder, many of them throwing down their arms and begging for their lives to be spared. The kingdom of Clovis was now extended far to the west.

Clovis becomes a Christian.—The king did not forget his promise. He went to Rheims and asked a good bishop to explain to him the principles of his wife's faith, and to baptize him. When he entered the church, and saw the lights and heard the music, he asked, "Is this the kingdom of Heaven?" The bishop replied, "No, but it is the way which will lead you there." On Christmas Day in the year 496 Clovis and three thousand of his savage warriors were baptized as Christians. Those who preferred to worship their old heathen gods were allowed to do so, but they were sent to other tribes. From that time Clovis was a Christian king.

For fifteen years more he continued his career of conqueror, but he no longer molested churches nor disturbed the priests at their worship. He overcame

all his enemies and established himself in Paris, which he made the capital of his kingdom. When he died his queen buried him in a church which she herself had ordered to be built.

The sluggard kings.—The family of Clovis kept the throne of this vast kingdom for two hundred years. None of his successors, however, was equal to Clovis himself. Their rule is a long story of greed, treachery, and murder, and at the end a condition of complete indolence. The kings became perfect sluggards, and the real rule was turned over to an officer known as the Mayor of the Palace. Those mayors finally took all power from the indolent kings and even made their own office hereditary. But once a year they went through the farce of bringing out the fat, long-haired, and sluggish king, and riding him in stately procession on an oxcart for the people to see. Then he was sent back to his estate somewhere in the country, where he was allowed to eat, drink, and carouse to his heart's delight, while the mayor returned to the management of the government.

Mohammed.—About a hundred years after Clovis had set up his great Frankish kingdom, another man with a higher purpose arose in Arabia, to build a world-conquering nation. That man was Mohammed. He was born in Mecca, about the year 570, the son of an old couple who were poor, but proud, for they had the blood of princes in their veins.

The Koran.—There were only a few Christians among the Arabians at that time. Most of the people worshiped idols. Mohammed was not satisfied with the teachings of Christ, and he also abhorred the idolatry around him. Providing himself with food and water he went to a mountain and dwelt in a cave. He spent many hours on his knees. As he prayed he felt the presence of the angel Gabriel near him talking to him. The angel appeared again and again, telling him many things. When Mohammed returned to Mecca he repeated what the angel had said to him, all of which the learned men wrote in a book. The book was called the Koran. It became the Bible of the Mohammedans, and remains so to this day.

Mohammed began to preach his religion to the people—a religion higher in morality than the Arabs had known. They laughed him to scorn, and called him a dreamer. A few poor people and some slaves were his only converts. He kept on preaching, however, with a rare and fiery eloquence, finally attracting great crowds wherever he went. His fame spread all over Arabia until his converts became numerous and his influence dangerous to the rulers and the priests of the old religion.

The Hegira.—His enemies gathered and secretly resolved to put him to death, saying he was an enemy to his country and a reviler of the gods. Mohammed resolved to flee from Mecca to Medina. His flight is called the Hegira, and is the beginning of

the Mohammedan Era. In fact the Mohammedans date everything from the Hegira (A.D. 622) as the Christians date everything from the birth of Christ.

Mecca is the sacred city of the Mohammedans, being the birthplace of the prophet. Once in his lifetime every Mohammedan must make a pilgrimage to Mecca. It is required of all the followers of the prophet that they pray five times a day, kneeling with their faces toward the sacred city.

The spread of Mohammedanism.—After the death of Mohammed his followers took up the sword with fiery zeal. They waged a holy war in Asia, completely overcoming Persia, Syria, Egypt, and Africa. Their empire was as large as that of Alexander the Great, with northern Africa besides. They even attacked Constantinople itself, but that city was so heroically defended that after a year's siege only thirty thousand of the besiegers out of a host of one hundred and eighty thousand were left. This repulse stayed the progress of Mohammedanism in the East, but the fanatical followers of the dead prophet turned with unabated zeal to other conquests. They turned their attention to Europe.

In 711 the Arabs, or Saracens as they were also called, crossed the straits of Gibraltar and overran Spain. Then later on they poured over the Pyrenees and spread into France. The western world was again threatened by an eastern host, and the time had come to decide whether Europe should be Mos-

THE SPREAD OF MOHAMMEDANISM
ATLANTIC OCEAN
KINGDOM OF THE FRANKS
ANGLO-SAXON KINGDOMS
SAXONS
SLAVIC
Avars
Khazars
Caspian Sea
Black Sea
Danube
Constantinople
ARMENIA
PERSIA
Tiflis
Tigris
Euphrates
Bagdad
Ispahan
Mosul
Antioch
Damascus
Jerusalem
Tarsus
Iconium
CYPRUS
CRETE
Aegean Sea
Adriatic Sea
Ravenna
Spalato
Ragusa
Durazzo
Rome
Naples
Syracuse
Tripoli
Barca
Alexandria
Cairo
EGYPT
Persian Gulf
ARABIAN SEA
Muscat
Mecca
Medina
Asuan
Nile
RED SEA
YEMEN
HADRAMAUT
INDIAN OCEAN
Merv
Herat
KHORASAN
Oxus
Kabul
Indus
Kandahar
Multan
Samarcand
SOGDIANA
Jaxartes
Aral Sea
TURKESTAN
Pamir
Balkhara
Cologne
Paris
Tours
Lyons
Milan
Pisa
Toulouse
CORSICA
SARDINIA
Barcelona
ASTURIAS
ANDALUS
Toledo
Merida
Lisbon
Seville
Cadiz
Gibraltar
Tangier
Fez
MAGRIB
Berbers
TWAT
FEZZAN
SAHARA
TRIPOLI
AFRICA
Tunis
Kairwan
SICILY
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ROMAN EMPIRE
EASTERN EMPIRE
THE EAST
HEJAZ
NEDJED
ARABIA

lem or Christian, and whether the Koran or the Bible should be the book of the Church.

The battle of Tours.—The Franks assembled to repulse the invaders. They were led by Charles Mar-

The battle of Tours was one of the decisive battles of the world. The victory of the Franks over the Saracens saved Europe for Christianity and western civilization.

tel, or Charles the Hammer, so called on account of his pounding habits as a soldier. One hundred years had passed since Mohammed had died, and now in 732, near the city of Tours, the eastern and western world, the Moslem and the Christian faith, stood face

to face on a battlefield in Europe, to decide which of the two should prevail. If the Franks prevailed we should be western and Christian; if the Saracens prevailed we should be eastern and Mohammedan. It was a momentous day in the history of the world.

Repulse of the Saracens.—The battle began at dawn and lasted till dark. The lean and wiry horsemen of Asia with long lances and thin, sharp swords, looked with surprise at the fair and shaggy giants that had come down from the north to meet them. With wheeling horses and cries of "Allah! Allah!" the white-turbaned host of Moslems, hurled themselves against the wall of iron that the sturdy Franks opposed to their fierce onslaught. At dark the battle was over, the Mohammedan leader was dead, and his followers were in full flight for the Pyrenees. Another decisive battle of the world had been fought. Charles Martel at Tours had saved Europe for western civilization and for Christianity, and Mohammedanism retired sullenly and slowly to its Asiatic home.

13. CHARLEMAGNE

Charlemagne or Charles the Great.—Thirty-six years after the battle of Tours, Charles the Great became king of the Franks (A.D. 768). He is known to us by his French name of Charlemagne, though he was a full-blooded Teuton. He reigned forty-six years, took part in fifty-three campaigns, and finally

became ruler over a large part of Europe. He was the greatest general and statesman that the world produced from the fifth to the fifteenth century, a period of a thousand years.

He had many wars with the Saxons, a barbarous tribe living to the east of his empire. At the point of the sword he compelled all his enemies to be baptized and become Christians as fast as he conquered them. In this way thousands of the savage Saxons were forced into the rivers, and baptized and made to profess the Christian faith whether they liked it or not.

The chieftain and the shirts.—In order to induce the Saxons to become Christians peaceably, Charlemagne promised every convert a clean white shirt. There were so many applicants that the shirts gave out, and the king was forced to offer only a coarse yellow kind that did not appeal to the barbarians. One giant chief offered to be baptized and was presented with a yellow shirt. To this he replied scornfully, "I have been baptized twenty times already and have twenty white shirts. I shall not confess Christianity any more just for a yellow shirt. Your religion is too stingy with its clothes."

The unruly Saxons.—The Saxons were hard to keep subdued. When they were conquered in one place, they would break out in another, so that the king was kept constantly on the move for thirty years before he had brought them all under com-

EUROPE
IN THE TIME OF
CHARLEMAGNE
768-814
ATLANTIC OCEAN
North Sea
BALTIC SEA
Caspian Sea
Black Sea
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
FINNISH TRIBES
SCANDINAVIA
Northmen
Swedes
Danes
BRITAIN
KINGDOM
SCOTTISH
ENGLAND
London
SAXONS
Saxons
FRANKISH KINGDOM
Paris
Poitiers
Ratisbon
FRANKS
SLAVIC TRIBES
KINGDOM OF THE AVARS
KINGDOM OF THE KHAZARS
Poles
Magyars
Bulgarians
Adriatic Sea
Lombards
Rome
Naples
CORSICA
SARDINIA
Goths
OMMIAD CALIPHATE OF CORDOVA
Cordova
ASTURIAS
CALIPHATE OF BAGDAD
EASTERN ROMAN EMPIRE
Adrianople
Constantinople
THRACE
GREECE
SICILY
CRETE
CYPRUS
Jerusalem
ARABIA
SYRIA
EGYPT

plete subjection to his empire. At one time he was so exasperated with their leaders for breaking their promises of obedience and their vows of baptism that he collected over four thousand of them and had them beheaded. This was not very Christian-like on his part, but those were cruel days, and the king was a stern ruler.

Having conquered all the Saxon territory Charlemagne had it colonized by Frankish pioneers, ruled by his own officers, and influenced by Christian churches. In this warlike and unrelenting way he laid the foundations of modern Germany.

Charlemagne now marched into Italy, where the Lombard king had risen in rebellion against the Pope, who was declared the head of the Christian Church. Completely overthrowing the rebellious vassal, Charlemagne with his own hand placed the iron crown of Lombardy upon his own head, saying, "I am henceforth king of Italy."

Emperor of the Romans.—In order to strengthen his power and authority he revived the name of the Roman Empire in the West. Being an ally of the Pope the king repaired to Rome, where on Christmas Day in the year 800 he knelt at the altar before Leo III, who placed on his head a gold crown and saluted him as Emperor of the Romans. In this way the great conqueror ruled over a territory extending from the Pyrenees to the Baltic, and eastward as far as the Oder River.

A patron of learning.—Charlemagne was as great a statesman as he was a soldier. He never learned to write though he was devoted to learning and was fond of books and study. He learned to read fairly

In the year 800, on Christmas Day, Charlemagne was crowned at Rome by Pope Leo III as Emperor of the Romans.

well, but writing was beyond his power to learn, though he tried very hard and even took his writing tablets to bed with him to practice when he awoke in the night or in the morning. For the age in which he lived, however, he was an educated man.

Founding schools.—He began by starting schools in his own palace, and in the monasteries. He invited learned men to visit his court and teach his subjects. One of the greatest teachers of that day, named Alcuin, came to his palace as a teacher for the nobles of the court. The emperor himself went to school in the same way as did the nobles, the soldiers, and the children, and his kingly mind was as much puzzled as any over the strange characters that were used in reading and writing.

Advice to children of the rich.—He noticed that the children of the rich did not study as hard as the children of the poor, so he soundly berated the lazy sons of the nobles and rich dependents, saying, "You think because you are rich that you have no need of knowledge. You need it more than those who have nothing. If you idle your time now, you will be worthless when you are grown, and the poor who work may some day possess the wealth of those that trifle." This was sound advice then and is good advice today as well.

His personal habits.—The emperor was so desirous of knowledge himself that he had some one read aloud to him as he ate. He lived very simply, eating plain food and drinking nothing but water. His dress was severely plain, and while his courtiers were dressed in rich silks and satins, the emperor himself wore the simple strong clothes of a peasant. He was very fond of music, and is said to

have introduced the organ into France. The story is told that an old woman died of joy when first she heard an organ played, thinking the music was from a heavenly choir. The emperor required the priests to use the chants of the church, and urged the people to sing. It is said that he composed a hymn which is still in use.

Though his empire covered a large part of Europe, the emperor took great interest in the small affairs of the empire. He built roads, established markets, devised weights and measures, and required the people to use them. He examined the farmers' accounts, and made them keep a strict watch over their expenses.

14. ENGLAND AND ALFRED THE GREAT

What the Romans taught the Britons.—It is time that we turn our attention to Britain, whose natives had been conquered and whose lands had been settled by the Romans, when that empire was in its glory. The Romans taught the rude Britons how to build roads and drain swamps, how to make better houses than the mud huts they were using, how to organize themselves into a regular army, and how to live more comfortably and with less savagery than they had been accustomed to.

The Anglo-Saxons.—When the Romans left Britain in 410, the Scots and Picts, wild tribes from the north and northwest, and the fierce Saxons from the continent, who were a tribe of the Teutons, began

to harry the country. These Saxons were the same people with whom Charlemagne waged war. The Picts, the Scots, and the Saxons descended upon the coasts or invaded the land, burned houses, destroyed crops, stole property, killed the people, or carried them away as slaves.

At last the Saxons, who kept coming in greater number, drove the Scots and Picts back into the mountains, and took possession of the island for themselves. The Angles were another Teutonic tribe that came into England with the Saxons and from their name came the word England, land of the Angles, as well as the word Anglo-Saxon, which is used to designate the English-speaking people.

Customs of the Saxons.—These Saxons were originally savages, just as much so as the original Britons were, but they had many fine traits of character. They had an abiding respect for women. They cultivated the ground, lived on simple food, and were hospitable to strangers. They were fond of the open country, and preferred living on farms to living in cities or villages. Their leaders left many questions for the people themselves to decide, for which purpose they held large open-air meetings, where every man voted as his judgment inclined him.

Gradually the Saxons and the Angles spread all over England, and absorbed the original inhabitants in their villages. Finally their language became the

language of the country and their laws and customs prevailed in all parts.

St. Patrick and Ireland.—Christianity made slow progress in the island under the rule of the Anglo-Saxons. Even after a hundred years had passed there were only a few Christians and these were hidden away in the hills. For the most part the people were still worshiping the old heathen gods of the Teutons. In Ireland, however, a missionary called St. Patrick had preached to the Irish and converted many of them to the new religion, and while England itself was still a heathen country the Irish had churches and schools.

Gregory and the Angle youths.—Upon one occasion a number of fair haired and ruddy cheeked Saxon or Angle youths were brought to Rome to be sold as slaves. Pope Gregory, while still a simple monk, saw them in the market place and asked who they were. The answer was, "They are Angles." The monk looked at their blue eyes, fair skin, and golden hair and remarked, "They are angels rather than Angles." When he became Pope he sent an earnest missionary named Saint Augustine to preach to the Saxons in England.

King Egbert.—Over two hundred years passed and the Saxons were firmly established in England. A number of little kingdoms were formed, each one with a chief or king. A number of these kingdoms had Saxon names. Essex was East Saxon; Sus-

sex was South Saxon; Wessex was West Saxon. About 829, a king named Egbert, who ruled over Wessex in southern England, showed himself to be

Gregory, when a monk, in the market place at Rome, seeing some Angle youths exposed for sale, declared, "They are angels rather than Angles."

stronger than others and they agreed to acknowledge him as their overlord and pay tribute to him. He took the name of King of the English.

England by this time had also become a Christian country. There were churches, schools, and convents. There was good government in the kingdom, and while the times were rude, and men were cruel in warfare, yet in the main the country was happy and prosperous and the churches were rich.

The coming of the Danes.—About 787 came the terrible Danes, or Northmen, from the shores of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, who swooped down on the English coast to burn and ravage, as the Saxons themselves had done four hundred years before. The Danes were still heathen, and delighted in battle. It was their joy to land upon any shore, destroy, kill, burn, and plunder, and carry their booty back to Denmark. No storms could deter them, no weather could discourage them. In the darkness they landed and silently stole up the rivers. With wild cries they burst upon a sleeping village, or into a peaceful convent, slew all in their way, seized everything they wished, and fled down the streams, and across the sea, singing the wild songs of their religion. The inhabitants of the coast towns lived in constant terror.

The Danes kept coming in greater numbers, even as the Saxons before them had done. But the Saxons were now civilized and Christians and owners of the land, and the Danes were savage marauders that must be beaten back. King Egbert drove them away while he was alive, but his successors could do little with the swarming hosts that kept on com-

ing, and plundering, and staying longer and longer with each visit.

The young Alfred. The fourth grandson of King Egbert was Alfred, who was only twenty-three years of age when he became king (A.D. 871). When he was a child he had been taken to Rome and to Paris, where his young mind was deeply impressed with what he saw and heard. When he was twelve years of age he with his brother one day was listening to his mother read a book of Saxon poetry. The boys were anxious to own the book. The queen said, "I will give it to the one who first learns to read it." Alfred found a teacher that very day, studied very hard, and was the only one to learn to read the book. His mother gave it to him gladly. He was proud of the book all his life.

Alfred the Great, who became king of England in 871, when he was 23 years of age. He was a soldier, statesman, and patron of schools and industry.

King Alfred and the cakes.—The Danes were overrunning the country. The young king fought nine battles with them the first year of his reign. He beat them everywhere and made them promise to

leave the country, but the invaders would break their promises as fast as they made them. One dreadful winter the Danes had spread all over England. The soldiers of King Alfred had been scattered and the king himself in the disguise of a peasant had to take refuge in the hut of a cowherd, who did not know who he was. The cowherd's wife put some cakes on the hearth to bake, and told the stranger to watch them and not let them burn. The king forgot all about the cakes, thinking of the distress of his country and wondering what had become of his army. When the woman returned the cakes had burned. "What do you mean, idle fellow?" she cried; "You will be willing enough to eat those cakes, but you cannot watch them for me." Little did she know she was scolding her own king, and Alfred never told her.

Visits the Danish camp.—Alfred's army gathered again and followed the Danes to their camp. The king, who was a good musician, disguised himself as a minstrel, and with his harp went into the enemy's camp and offered to play and sing for Guthrum, the Danish leader. The Danes welcomed the minstrel, and for many hours the disguised king played and sang while the invaders caroused and drank. All the time Alfred was watching and listening and soon discovered the numbers of the enemy and how their camp was fortified. The Danes never found out that Alfred had visited their camp.

The defeat of the Danes.—Stealing back to his own men he prepared them for battle. In the morning he fell upon the Danes and defeated them with

After the defeat of the Danes by Alfred, England was divided as shown on the map, and peace reigned throughout the kingdom.

great slaughter. The wise king then proposed to Guthrum that he would make peace with him on con-

dition that the Danes would settle in the eastern part of England, that they should give up their arms and betake themselves to peaceful pursuits, and that Guthrum himself should become a Christian. All this Guthrum agreed to do, and at his baptism Alfred was his godfather.

King Alfred and his people.—King Alfred now devoted himself to improving the conditions of his people. He built forts and ships to protect the country; then he built churches and schools for worship and study. He became a scholar and translated Latin books into English for the people to read. He made just laws and appointed wise judges, and punished robbers severely. It was a common saying that golden chains and jewels could be hung upon the highways and no one would dare touch them.

There were no clocks in those days, and so the king, who wished to divide his time evenly, hit upon the device of making six candles of the same size, each candle burning four hours. Each candle was measured off into portions, so that as the candles burned the king could see how much time had elapsed. To prevent draughts of air from spoiling the candles, he surrounded them with thin plates of horn, thus making the first lanterns.

Probably no other king in the history of England has done so much for his country. He loved freedom, justice, religion, and knowledge. He was brave and generous and untiring. Few of those who have

been given the title of the Great deserve it more than Alfred.

TOPICS FOR REVIEW

The Downfall of Rome.—The Teutons; their character; habits; religion. Mingling with the Romans. The coming of the Goths; their admission; their treatment; their uprising. The story of Alaric. Other tribes found kingdoms. The Vandals. Coming of the Huns. The battle of Chalons. The downfall of the Roman Empire. The rulers. The beginning of the modern languages. The Dark Ages. The Justinian Code. The Church.

The kingdom of the Franks.—Clovis; Syagrius. Clovis the conqueror, despoiling the churches. Story of the vase of Soissons. Marriage with Clotilda. Clovis' prayer at battle near Strassburg; the result of the battle; Clovis becomes a Christian. The sluggard kings; the mayors of the palace. Mohammed. Mohammed dwells alone; the angel's visits. The Koran. His preaching; his converts; his influence. The Hegira. Mecca the sacred city. The spread of Mohammedanism. The Saracens in Spain; the threat of the Moslem hosts. Charles Martel and the battle of Tours; the repulse of the Saracens; the effect of the battle.

Charlemagne.—His record. Conquers the Saxons. Compels them to be baptized. Story of the chieftain and the shirts. The unruly Saxons; the fate of the insubordinate. Foundations of modern Germany. Makes himself king of Italy. Emperor of the Romans; extent of his empire. His love for learning. Founding schools; Alcuin; his advice to the children of the rich. His simple habits. His interest in the people.

England and Alfred the Great.—What the Romans taught the Britons. The Scots and Picts; the Saxons; origin of "England"; "Anglo-Saxon." Habits of the Saxons; popular meeting. St. Patrick converts Ireland to Christianity. Story of the Angle youths and Pope Gregory. Division of England into little kingdoms. Egbert. Coming of the Danes. Alfred; his boyhood; his desire to learn. Alfred and the cakes. Alfred visits the Danish camp. Defeat of the Danes. Absorbing the Danes into the kingdom. King Alfred and his people; schools; laws; measuring time; lanterns.

SUBJECTS FOR DISCUSSION

Of what advantage was the mingling of Romans and Teutons to the history of the world? What was the cause of the Dark Ages? Discuss the saving influence of the Church in those days. Discuss the influence of Clotilda over her husband, and its effect on France. When kings are sluggards what is the result? Discuss the Arabs of the present day. Discuss the character of Mohammed. Discuss the effect of the battle of Tours. In what way did Charles deserve the title of Great? What did Alfred the Great do for his people?

CHAPTER IV

THE LATER MIDDLE AGES

15. THE FEUDAL SYSTEM

Defenseless condition of small communities.—After the death of Charlemagne and the breaking up of his great empire all continental Europe was the ground of contention and strife. The laws were not enforced because there was nobody strong enough to enforce them. The weak and the defenseless were at the mercy of any robber or brigand who chose to plunder them, and there were plenty of marauders in the land. The result was that the small chiefs and leaders had recourse to barricaded houses around which they gathered retainers as fighting men to protect the whole community from the inroads of bandits and robbers, or from plundering by stronger chiefs with a larger following.

The Feudal System.—After a while these leaders devised the scheme of having the owners of small farms surrender their lands to the powerful lords and to receive them back again as vassals, the understanding being that the vassal was to hold the land and give part of the produce to the lord, and attend him in his wars, while the lord agreed to pro-

tect the vassal in the enjoyment of his farm and house.

This system after many years spread over Europe, including England, and became known as the Feudal System. It was based upon an agreement between lord and vassal for mutual interest and protection. The word feudal is derived from the word "feud," which meant fee or payment in grain or money for a certain consideration, such as rent, or protection, or privilege.

Lords and vassals.—At first the lords' houses were mere stockade forts, but as the years passed these cheap houses gave way to great castles of stone, standing upon the hillsides or mountains, or by the side of rivers. In these castles lived the lords, while the vassals who gradually became peasants and dependents, cultivated the fields nearby, and supplied the inmates of the castle with grain and cattle. As the lords grew rich they abandoned the idea of having the vassals go to war with them in their quarrels with neighboring lords, and instead had regular horsemen and soldiers, who lived in the castle and did the fighting when necessary. In case of an attack the vassals would fly to the castle for protection, and the lord and his fighting men would issue forth and drive away the robbers.

The castles of the lords.—The castles were built for defense, as well as for homes and places of refuge. The outer walls were very thick, crowned

An ancient castle was a fortress as well as a home.

with battlements from behind which men could hurl huge stones upon any attacking party. In many cases the walls were surrounded by a moat or ditch filled with water. A drawbridge was used to enter and leave the castle gate, which was drawn up when the castle was attacked. The wall of the castle sometimes enclosed several acres, inside of which was the home of the lord and his family, the quarters of the soldiers or knights as they were called, and storehouses for supplies. Thus we see the castle itself was like a fort, prepared at all times to receive the nearby villagers inside its enclosure, and to defend its walls against those who assailed it.

Many of these castles were built for the class of nobles who were relatives, friends, or favorites of a king who had conquered the country or a part of it and who divided out the land and the people on it among those he chose. In this way great estates were granted to dukes, lords, and barons, who built magnificent castles, and made the people on their lands work for them. These nobles were bound to support the king and go to war with him whenever he called for them. This was very much to the advantage of the nobles, but hard upon the villagers.

The people were now divided into three great classes: the nobles who owned the land, and lived in the castle; the peasants who tilled the soil, and lived in the huts and cabins nearby the castle; the clergy who took care of the affairs of the Church.

A knight in armor.

The business of the lords.—The main business of the lords was war. They had to defend their own lands and sometimes they attacked the lands that belonged to some other lord. Then again the king or ruler often called them out in his wars, for that was one of the conditions of being made a lord or baron. Of course the lords had no profitable employment; that was beneath their rank and dignity.

The order of knighthood.—In time of war these lords gathered their soldiers together and rode to the field of battle. They wore armor and helmets, carried heavy swords and battle-axes, and rode powerful horses, very much as the ancients did a thousand years before. The combats were all hand-to-hand since gunpowder was not yet in use, and individual strength and courage counted a great deal. Even the

kings wore armor and went to battle, and some of them were valiant warriors. Out of this constant warfare grew the order of knighthood, the knights being owners of the castle or else the retainers who were ready at any time for battle.

Life in the castle.—The castle was a gloomy place to live in when there was no war going on. The rooms were large, damp, and cold. There was no window glass and the light came in through narrow openings in the walls. The sleeping apartments had no way to warm them and at night were lighted by ill-smelling candles. The furniture was crude and uncomfortable, the beds hard, and there were no bathing facilities as we have at the present day.

The great hall was the only place where there was any life or activity. Here the lord and his family ate and lived and held their courts, though the big room was gloomy enough with its dark wooden walls and ceilings however handsomely carved they were. All around the walls were hung heavy armor and swords and battle-axes, and often some other lords' banners that had been captured in battle.

It was cheerful at times, when the big open fireplace was blazing with lighted logs, and the tables spread with rich meats killed in the forests preserved for the hunting of the lord and his friends. Then the wandering minstrel who had sought a few days' shelter would play his harp and sing, and the company of knights and ladies would laugh and dance.

The great hall in the lord's castle.

Time hung heavy on the hands of those who lived in the castle when there was no war. The only amusement was riding in tournaments, which was a kind of make-believe combat between knights, hunting wild boars or stags in the forests, and preparing for an expedition against some neighboring lord. There were no books to read, no letters to write, no papers to bring the news. There were very few visitors to the castles, and nowhere for the inmates to go.

The attendants were kept busy cleaning and polishing the armor, the swords, lances, and battle-axes of the knights, preparing food, cutting wood, and drawing water. The guards were always on the walls, on the lookout for enemies or approaching guests. There were porters for each entrance, and stable boys to care for the horses.

There are many remains of these old castles in various places in Europe, some in ruins, and some in a fair state of preservation. They show us the big frowning fort used for defense in which once lived a lord of the manor while around him toiled hundreds of peasants to supply the needs of his family and attendants.

16. WHAT IT MEANT TO BE A KNIGHT

In the days of feudalism and chivalry it was the ambition of every boy of noble birth to become a knight and engage in the service of his lord or king. The ordinary peasant boy could hardly ever hope to

become a knight, for they were usually chosen from the sons of lords and barons and of other knights.

The page.—When the boy was seven or eight years of age, he was taken from the castle where his father lived and sent to some other castle to learn his duties. He was at first called a page. It was his duty to wait upon the ladies of the castle, to go on errands for them, and attend them when they went hunting. He was taught to be polite, respectful, and obedient, for it was expected of every knight that he should be very considerate of women and obey all the rules of his order.

His conduct.—When the page came into the room he was required to kneel before the lords and ladies, and to say with all modesty, "God speed you, my lords and ladies." Then he must stand up quite straight, not leaning on any chair or table or post and must not speak unless he was spoken to. Then he must always bow when he made a reply.

His duties.—The page had to attend the lord at his meals and bring him a basin of water and a cloth to wash and dry his hands after eating, for in those days there were no knives and forks and persons ate with their fingers, several persons dipping in the same trencher.

His education.—The boy was not taught to read or write, but learned to play on the harp and sing love songs, and also to play chess and backgammon. Those were accomplishments no gentleman could do

without. For the rest, he said his prayers, learned his catechism, went to church, and paid much respect to religion.

His horsemanship.—He accompanied his lord to war, but being a boy was never allowed to come near the fighting line, or get in any danger. Generally, he stayed around the lord's tent, waiting on him at his meals and preparing his bed at night. He was taught to ride a horse, which was a serious business with a knight, and not altogether a pleasure. He learned to leap on his horse without touching the stirrups, and to stay in the saddle at the most furious pace, while the horse was leaping over the tops of walls and fences. In fact a knight was expected to be as safe and sure on horseback as he was on foot, for such ability would be needed later on when it came to actual battle or fighting in the tournaments.

Hunting and hawking.—Hunting was also an important part of the boy's training. When he was about twelve years of age he had to learn to use the bow and arrow, to track wild boar, deer, and other animals in the forest, and to kill them with his arrow, or spear, or hunting knife. He was also taught the art of hawking, which was killing other birds by means of a trained falcon. He had to know how to use the falcons and throw them upon their prey. For instance, he had to carry the falcon on his wrist or forearm, and when the time came for a flight had to unchain and unhook the bird and throw it dex-

At fourteen or fifteen years of age the page became a squire, and began to learn the use of armor and swords in battle.

terously into the air, so that it could swoop upon other birds or small animals in the field.

The training of a squire.—When the page was fourteen or fifteen years old he was made a squire. The service became harder and the training more exact. He still served his lord at table, and was allowed to bear the cup of wine, which as a page he was not allowed to do. For exercise he had to run longer distances, climb steeper heights, and leap over wider ditches than before. He was made to endure hunger and thirst, heat and cold, and to stay awake through long nights of watching. The training was hard at times, and many a squire fainted from exhaustion and was not able to qualify for knighthood.

The squire's duties in battle.—When the lord went to battle the squire went with him to look after his horse and to bear his shield and armor. He even went into the very battle itself and stood ready to give aid to his lord in case of need. If his lord was unhorsed, it was the squire's duty to catch the horse while his master was fighting afoot. If the horse was killed he had to bring another one. In case the lord lost his sword or his lance the squire must be ready to supply him with a new one. If the lord was getting the worst of a combat or if he was attacked by several knights at one time, the squire had to come to his aid and fight the best he knew how. In this way the squire had his education.

Becoming a knight.—At twenty or twenty-one the squire was ready to be made a knight. He spent the night before in a long, lonesome vigil, at the tomb of some saint or departed knight, in meditation and prayer. Then he bathed and went to a solemn service at the church or chapel and listened to a sermon on the life of a blameless knight. He then put on his new shining armor, and presented himself to be dubbed a knight. Kneeling before his lord or king, he received a light blow on the shoulders or on the back of his neck, with the words, "In the name of God, of Saint Michael, and of Saint George, I dub thee knight. Be brave, ready, and loyal. Arise, Sir Knight."

A knight's duties.—The knight arose, mounted his horse, took his shield, sword, and lance, and rode about the castle grounds, receiving the congratulations of his friends, and distributing gratuities among the priests and the servants. It was his sworn duty to aid the poor and helpless, to defend women and children, to see that justice was done to the oppressed, and to be loyal to his lord and king.

There was plenty for a knight to do in those days. He need only ride forth and shortly he would discover that some poor peasant had been robbed of his goods or his cattle, or some fair maiden had been carried away from her family, or some castle attacked by an enemy, or some priest been beaten upon the highway, and his adventures would begin.

The ceremony of becoming a knight.

If he desired friendly sport he might call at some castle and say to the porter at the gate, "A knight awaits without to joust with any friendly knight of this castle."

The challenge to combat.—Quickly the word was passed around and quickly the challenge was accepted. The ladies, knights, squires, pages, and servants gathered at the tilting ground, which was a level spot in the courtyard, surrounded with benches for the spectators. The knights, mounted on horses, with visors closed and lances couched, took their places at each end of the ground ready for the combat.

At the signal from a trumpet, the horses sprang forward, the knights came together with terrific shock, lance striking helmet or shield, each trying to unhorse or disarm his antagonist. The joust was continued until one of the knights was thrown from his horse or owned himself defeated.

In the towns, or at large castles, there were sometimes great gatherings in which tournaments were held for prizes, and famous knights came from far and near to engage in the tilting. There were days of feasting and drinking and the knights were constantly engaged in feats of arms.

Tournaments.—When the lists were ready the herald cried out, "Advance, knights, and do battle for your lords and lady loves." The cavalcade moved into the field, the horses in blazing harness,

Knights in friendly combat, each trying to unhorse the other.

the knights in shining armor. Separating into two groups the combatants faced one another. The trumpet sounded a loud blast, the horses sprang forward, each knight with his head bent low and his long lance poised at the helmet of his opponent. Then came a mighty clash of contending arms and men, with the ground strewn with unhorsed knights and blood mingling with the dust. It was rough sport and dangerous, but it made good warriors brave in battle and fearless in any cause they espoused.

There are no knights in armor at the present day to set forth to battle for the poor and helpless and by force of arms to see that justice is done. But we have inherited the principles for which knighthood stood, and still find the same need, though in other ways, to wage battle for the same causes that engaged the knights of former days.

17. HOW THE PEOPLE LIVED

The peasants.—The peasants who dwelt around the castles in their huts and cabins and worked upon the farms had a very different life from the lords and barons who dwelt within. The peasants owned none of the land. For miles and miles around the castle the land belonged to the lord, who held it in his own right or by grant from the king. The peasants merely worked the land, living on it in small farms of about thirty acres to a family and paying

to the lord a portion of their crops, or performing the other duties, such as supplying wood, pigs, lambs, cattle, or poultry.

Serfs and villains.—The lowest class of peasants were called serfs, which was about the same thing as slaves. The lord did not actually own the serfs, but they were bound to the soil, and went with it whenever it was sold or conquered or given away. They were also called villains, which meant those who lived in the village or town around the castle. While these serfs were bound to the soil, still the lord could not take away their land, nor deprive their children of it.

Working the crops.—In addition to working their own crops the serfs had to work the farm lands of the lord, this sometimes taking a larger portion of their time. They had to plow the lord's domain, which consisted of about half the land, plant and gather his grain, thresh it, and store it in the barns. Also it was their duty to repair the castle, work on the roads, and do pretty much everything the lord told them to do. The serfs were such poor farmers that a yield of three times the seed, or six bushels of grain to the acre, was considered a good crop.

The houses of the serfs.—Their homes were mere hovels, earth-floored, straw-thatched, one-room affairs, generally made of logs or sticks, and were dirty beyond belief. There was no chimney and no window, and no opening except a rude door. The cooking was done on the dirt floor, and the smoke

Old prints, showing the hard life of the serfs.

was left to get out through the roof or the open door, the best way it could. Behind each house was a low stable where pigs, cows, chickens, and oxen were kept, and often the animals were under the same roof as the family. In cold, wet weather the discomforts of the serfs were very great, and at all times they were overwhelmed with ignorance and poverty.

The hard lot of the serf.—For food the serfs had the coarsest sort of black bread, beans, turnips, cabbages, and occasionally dried meat. Potatoes were not known then, nor was sugar. Honey was the chief luxury, but only the better class of serfs could afford a hive of bees. Sometimes a bad season would bring a failure of his crops, or his pigs would die, or robbers carry off his chickens and oxen, and then the lot of the serf was hard indeed. Between sickness and famine it was often a question whether the family could live through the winter and until the next crop. He could not leave the land if he wanted to, and but few lords had any patience with distressed tenants.

The serf's clothing was generally one garment of coarse cloth, tied around the waist with a rope. Hats and shoes were luxuries that few possessed. For furniture his house contained a low bed of straw, sometimes of feathers, one or two rude benches, a pot, a kettle, a handmill for grinding his grain, and a few tools for his work.

The serf could not marry, nor give his daughter in marriage, without his lord's consent. There were no schools for his children, no books for them to study, no place of amusement, and of the outside world the serf and his family had little or no knowledge. They rarely went more than a few miles from the cabins in which they lived, for fear of robbers, or of getting lost. They had no ambition beyond the castle, no hope beyond the farm, nothing but the ceaseless round of privation and toil.

Gradual improvement.—For hundreds of years during the Middle Ages life went on in this way, with the lords, knights, and retainers in the castles, and the toiling peasants in the fields. It took a long time for the people to awake from their condition, but in the tenth and eleventh centuries, when the villages around the castles had grown into towns and the peasants' houses were better, and a kind of manufacturing had begun, the people began to rebel at the hard lot they endured. Churches were being built everywhere, and Christian freedom and equality were being taught. A few schools were opened, and some of the better class of peasants sent their children to the priests and teachers. Commerce between the towns began in a simple way, and travelers were going from place to place carrying the news.

The peasants began to question the right of the lords and nobles to own all the land, and to bind the

people to the soil. They resented being in half slavery, and were tired of tilling the lord's land to the neglect of their own, and getting nothing for it except protection from robbers whose coming grew less and less frequent. The peasants began to speak their minds very bravely.

Rise of new ideas.—The villages grew into towns, the towns grew into cities. The ideas of the people enlarged and they desired to own land and houses of their own. There was much talk of freedom and independence. The lords and barons began to lose their influence, and the glory of the old castle began to lose its lustre. From year to year the power of the lords diminished as the leading peasants became wiser and stronger, to whom the others listened and for whose leadership they were ready.

The granting of privileges.—The lords began to compromise and to grant privileges to their tenants. They granted charters to the citizens, as the peasants came to be called, giving them power to make their own laws, punish their own offenders, buy and sell their own manufactures, own their own lands and houses, and in many other ways to regulate their own affairs. These grants or charters varied according to the strength of the citizen and the power of the lord, or his generosity toward his people. In case the lord stood his ground and refused to grant any privilege at all, the citizens would sometimes attack his castle and compel him to yield.

Free cities.—Occasionally the people would find the lord in need of money, and they would buy the freedom of the town, paying a large sum of money for it, and the town would become a "free city," over which the lord had no control whatsoever. Gradually there was a rise of free cities all over Europe.

The awakening of the people.—The citizens began to realize their power and to take on more of the comforts of civilization. They learned trades and many became artisans. The better class of them sent their children to school. They learned more about farming and the care of crops. They built better houses to live in, and bought furniture to put in them. They opened stores and began to trade with one another and with other cities. Europe and England were beginning to awake from the long sleep of centuries, and the stirrings of a new life for all the people began to appear everywhere.

Walled cities.—As the towns became free they found themselves without an army and with no means of defense. To protect themselves against their enemies they resorted to the device of ancient days, and many cities became walled towns, with towers and battlements from which an enemy could be repulsed. In some cases the entire town was surrounded with a wide ditch filled with water, too deep for man or horse to wade through, and over which removable bridges were built. Gates were provided for coming in and going out, open by day and care-

fully closed at night. The remains of some of these walls may be still seen in many places of Europe.

Condition of the cities.—Inside the walls the streets were narrow and crowded, never lighted except by torches and lanterns carried by late travelers. The houses were close together, with no yards in front or rear, to save space. There was no water supply, the people depending on wells or cisterns. There were no paved streets, no parks, no sewerage. After night fell the dark alleys and streets were dangerous places for persons unprotected by sword or staves. Those who were out of work often resorted to robbery for a means of livelihood, and police protection was practically unknown.

But the people were free and while most of them were very poor yet they were finding their way to a better government and a better condition of living. Artisans worked at their trades, merchants displayed wares in their shops, pack horses lumbered along the uneven streets bringing goods from a distant town, and occasionally some noble or prince would pass in his carriage on his way to the palace, but to him the citizens ceased to pay more than a passing respect.

The spirit of freedom.—Thus the mediaeval cities came into importance. They finally grew into centers of wealth, industry, and art, while the castles fell into decay and finally into disuse. The life of the citizen now became the care of the government,

and his concerns were of greater moment than the lord's comforts or his contentions. The spirit of freedom was alive in the minds of the people, and had much to do with the revival of those arts that are the basis of our modern civilization.

18. THE INFLUENCE OF THE CHURCH

Priests and missionaries.—During the Middle Ages all Europe was almost at a standstill in those things that make for civilization. The arts and sciences were neglected and schools were few. Only war and conquest engaged the attention of kings and princes. Amid the universal gloom and stagnation the Christian Church alone was alive and active. We find devoted priests and missionaries going into the remote regions of the world and among the most barbarous people preaching religion and converting the leaders from heathen worship to the simple faith of Christianity.

The Church thus became the one and only bond that held Europe together. Nations were not yet made as we know them today, but gradually all the countries then in the forming came to recognize the Church as the one supreme power to which all kings and rulers must submit.

The celebration of Christmas and Easter, our great religious festivals, was established as early as the fourth century. These joyous occasions were bright spots in the gloomy life of the people.

Excommunication.—The Church also took on some of the functions of government. For those who disobeyed its orders there was held over them the threat of excommunication, or expulsion from the benefits of the Church. The offender was shut out from all religious communion. His fellow-men were forbidden to speak to him, or give him food or shelter. He was an outlaw to be shunned by society.

The interdict.—What excommunication was for an individual, an interdict was for a whole people. When the head of the Church issued the decree, all churches in the country were closed. No marriages could be performed, and no one could be buried in consecrated ground. These two powerful weapons, excommunication and the interdict, were sufficient to hold most people and rulers in subjection to the head of the Church, and to prevent many crimes and disorders that otherwise must go unnoticed or at least unpunished. To support the Church every home or hearth throughout Christendom paid a penny a year, called Peter's Pence.

The nations of Europe gradually gave up their ancient paganism, and under the influence of the teaching of the priests the people became Christians. When Europe came out of the darkness of the Middle Ages, paganism was no longer known, and all nations confessed the Christian religion.

Every village, town, and city had its own church,

and its own priest. In the castle of the barons, in the palace of the king, in the dwellings of the large landowners, and even by the wayside, there were chapels, where lords, rulers, knights, and ladies, rich and poor, paid their devotions.

Mediaeval cathedrals.—As the towns grew larger and became cities of importance, and the people became independent and threw off the yoke of the lords in the castles, it became their pride to build in many places great churches or cathedrals, as an evidence of their faith and sacrifice. They were the most magnificent and costly structures the people could build. The genius of architects, artists, sculptors, and engineers and the willing labor of many hands often through many years were given to those structures, and the cost ran into millions of dollars. These cathedrals still exist in Europe and are marvels of splendor and architectural beauty.

Around these cathedrals the towns grew. The castle of the lord was no longer the center of the community thought. It was the cathedral of the bishop. The doors were always open, the priest was always kindly. Within were quiet and peace and consolation, so different from the misery associated with the lordly and oppressive castle.

The Roman Church.—The head of the Roman Church was the Pope. He was the Bishop of Rome, and had charge of all churches and all religious affairs in all parts of the Christian world over which

The ancient cathedral at Rheims, France.

the Roman Church had dominion. He was looked upon with great reverence, and his orders were carried out by all officers of the Church and were obeyed by all its members, whether they were kings upon a throne or peasants in a field.

All Roman Catholic countries were divided into dioceses and parishes, over which there were archbishops and bishops and priests and missionaries. It was a vast and powerful organization, designed to convert the heathen, uphold laws, keep society in order, marry the living, bury the dead, and bring relief to the sick and distressed.

The monks.—There were members of the ministry that withdrew from the world and lived in the seclusion of monasteries. They were called monks. They took vows of perpetual poverty and often gave up everything they had to the Church. The Church at large supplied their simple needs, while they devoted themselves to caring for the poor and visiting the sick and afflicted. They also taught school, copied manuscripts, cared for wayfarers, and performed other holy offices. They wore coarse woolen cloth, with a girdle about the waist and a hood over the head.

The life in a monastery.—The monasteries in which they lived were gloomy buildings, with few comforts. Life was supposed to contain only hardship. The monks slept in small unheated cells, sat on hard benches, ate coarse food, and oftentimes

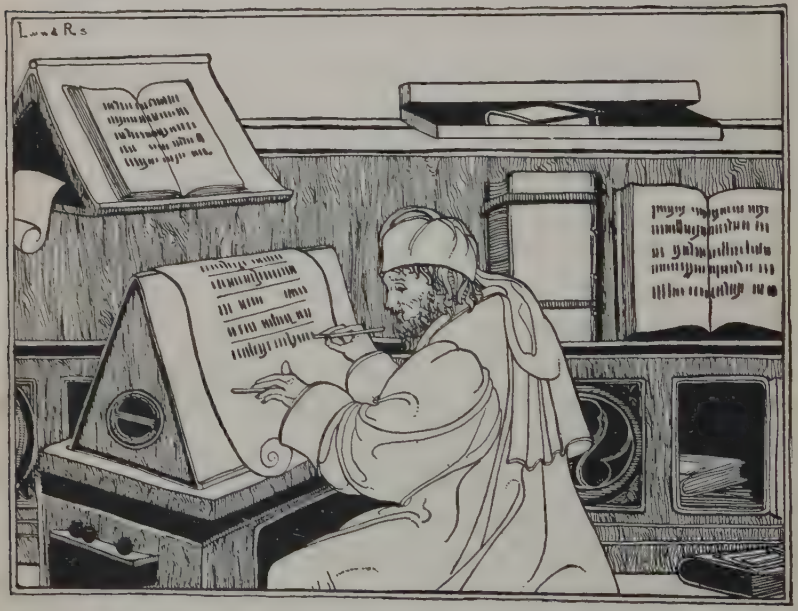
worked in the fields upon the land that belonged to the monastery. They were content with the bare necessities of life, and devoted themselves to pious works.

There were no printing presses and no printed books in those days. All books were in the form of manuscripts copied by hand on sheets of prepared skin called parchment. It became the office of the monks to copy the old manuscripts so that the ancient literature might not be lost to the world.

Copying manuscripts.—The monk was shut up in the writing room of the monastery, with a board or desk before him, and day after day laboriously copied a manuscript, or an old book, or the Bible itself. The lettering was carefully and beautifully done in ink, with infinite patience, endurance, and skill, months or even years being required to complete one volume. The loose sheets were sewed together, a cover was put on them as beautifully done as the sheets themselves, and the book was placed among the valuable possessions of the monastery. In this way were preserved many works of the ancient writers, as well as many copies of the Bible itself. Some of these old parchment books may be seen today in the old cathedrals or in the museums of the large cities.

Church schools.—The monks taught nearly all the schools because they were practically the only educated class. Ignorance was no disgrace then. Often

kings and queens did not know how to read and write. So the schools of the monasteries relieved the general ignorance. Those schools grew into colleges and universities after many years, many of which remain to the present day.



It is to the industry and skill of the monks of the Middle Ages in copying manuscripts that we owe the preservation of much valuable literature of the ancients.

As time went on these monasteries grew larger and stronger. More land was acquired, and oftentimes kings and rich landowners would give them money or make them presents, in return for which the monks would pray for the living and for the

souls of the dead. The monks did not profit by these gifts or grants. All went to the Church itself, which gradually became wealthy and powerful.

The growth of the Church.—By thrift and management the Church itself came to own large areas of land, and came into many valuable possessions and consequently gained a great deal of temporal as well as spiritual power. In every Christian nation the power of the Pope and the bishop was felt on many matters besides religious ones. In such things as royal marriages, kingly succession, and even the declaring of war, the consent of the Church had to be gained.

Thus we see the Church through the Middle Ages exerting its influence over all Christian nations, exercising not only spiritual power but even claiming the right to regulate temporal affairs. It did a vast deal of good in the world by educating the people, spreading the Christian religion, and preserving the Bible and keeping for modern times much valuable literature of ancient writers.

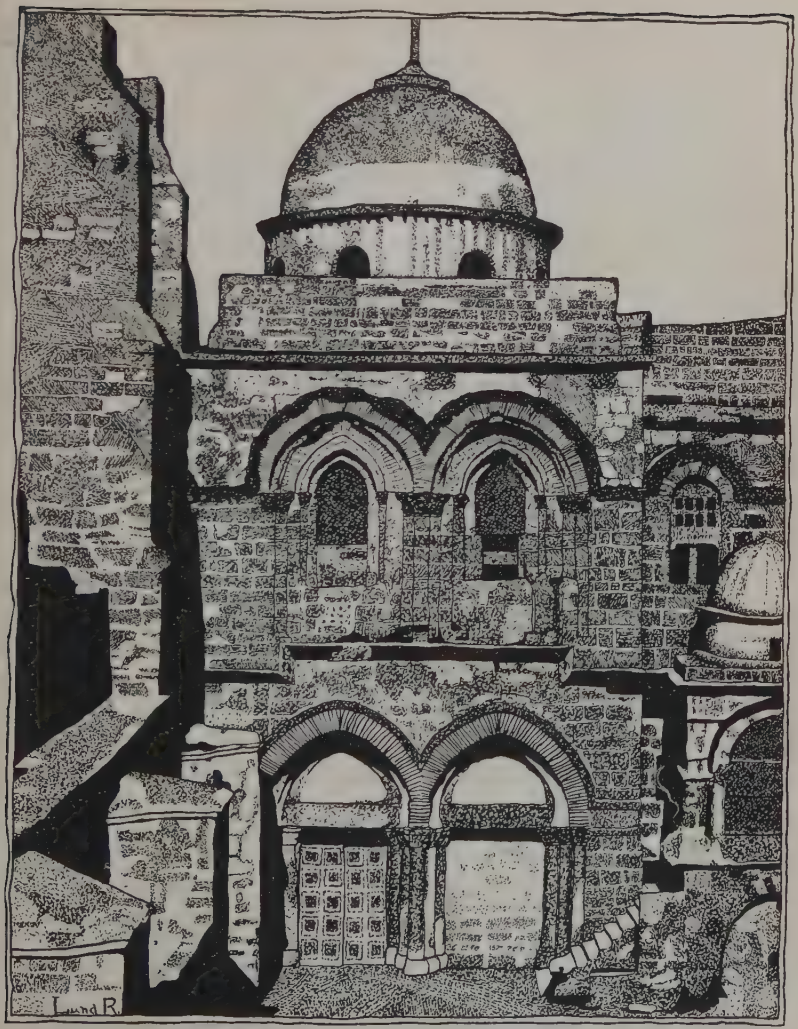
19. THE CRUSADES

The most dramatic and interesting event of the Middle Ages is the Crusades. These were adventurous expeditions undertaken by devout and warlike kings and rulers to recover the Holy Land from the dominion of the Turks, who were Mohammedan in their religion.

The Turks and the Holy Sepulchre.—The Turks had come into possession of Jerusalem and the Holy Sepulchre of Christ. They made the lives of pilgrims very hard. They demanded large sums of money of those wishing to visit the tomb of Christ and often robbed and killed Christians who had come to Jerusalem. The church itself at Jerusalem was not treated with reverence. It was rarely cleaned, never repaired, and was falling into decay. The returning pilgrims told the story of the hardship they suffered. In consequence of all this there arose all over western Europe a burning zeal to wrest the Holy Sepulchre from the infidels.

The Crusaders.—For over two hundred years during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, crowds of zealous people of all ranks and from all countries, kings, priests, monks, soldiers, peasants, formed into armies or bands and marched with incredible hardship to the Holy Land. They encountered many dangers, endured many privations, and fought many battles. Many lost their lives, some settled in the East, while others returned bringing with them marvelous stories of great cities, whose people possessed skill and knowledge, and lived in a luxury not known to the western world.

They were called Crusaders because they wore a cross on their shields or banners. They were "marked with a cross." There were seven great Crusades in all during these two hundred years, be-



The entrance to the church of the Holy Sepulchre.

sides one or two minor ones. There was even a Crusade of children, in which thousands of young boys lost their lives in a vain attempt to reach the Holy Land.

Peter the Hermit.—It is generally agreed that an obscure monk called Peter the Hermit was the first to preach a Crusade. He had been on a pilgrimage to Jerusalem and there had seen the oppression of the Christians, the defilement of the holy tomb, and the cruelty of the Turks towards the pilgrims. He came out of his retirement and went about barefoot, poorly clad, carrying a cross in his hand, and proclaiming with fiery eloquence that the Turks must be driven from Jerusalem. Holding high the cross before the eager crowds he everywhere proclaimed, "In this sign you shall conquer."

A Crusader was so called because he wore a cross on his shield, banner, and armor.

Result of Peter's Crusade.—As they marched they lived on the country. Some dropped out, others

dropped in. At one time the crowd numbered forty thousand. There was no order, no discipline, only an ardent priest leading a heedless mob in an adventure that was bound to fail. After five months marching, Peter's army, reduced to seven thousand, came to Constantinople, where the emperor was glad to pass them on further into Asia. At length they came near the Holy Land where a battle was fought with the inevitable result of disaster. The remnant of the army was scattered, and we hear nothing more of them in history. Peter's enterprise was not even numbered among the real Crusades. He was a great preacher, though a poor leader. He later on joined other crusading armies, whose organization and discipline led to better results.

Jerusalem captured and recaptured.—In the spring of 1096 a large and well-ordered army of over 100,000 men, from several nations of Europe, gathered at Constantinople, the place of meeting, and moved on the Holy Land. This is known as the First Crusade. When the army reached Jerusalem they found the city well protected by walls, and set in a region where neither food nor water could be easily obtained. After two months of great hardship the city was captured from the Turks and Godfrey of Bouillon, one of the French knights and leaders, was chosen as king of Jerusalem. Godfrey humbly refused to have a crown of gold put upon his head in the city where Christ had worn a crown of thorns.

Peter the Hermit, an obscure monk, was the first to preach a Crusade to deliver the Holy Sepulchre from the Turks.

He chose the title of Defender of the Holy Sepulchre. The Christians held the holy city for nearly ninety years before it was recaptured by the Turks under Saladin, the most heroic and distinguished sultan of the Mohammedans at that time.

Crusade of Richard I.—To rescue Jerusalem again, a Crusade was started about 1190 by Richard I, king of England, called the Lion-Heart on account of his great strength and bravery. He was assisted by his ally, Philip, king of France. One hundred thousand soldiers were in this Crusade. Upon their arrival in the Holy Land jealousies arose among the leaders; sickness, death, and disappointment affected the soldiers, and the overbearing conduct of the English offended Philip, so that he sailed home, leaving Richard to maintain the war for a year and a half.

Richard the Lion-Heart.—The Crusaders contended with the hot air of the glaring desert, with sickness and discomfort, with lack of food and water, and constant battles against a determined enemy. But they were ever upheld and supported by the heroic courage of Richard. He fought like a giant and worked like a common soldier. His terrible battle-axe with twenty pounds of lead in its head wrought such havoc among the Saracen soldiers that it became a by-word among them. Long after Richard was dead his deeds were recounted in the infidel households to frighten the children, and if a horse shied in battle his rider would say, "What is the

matter with you? Do you think king Richard is ahead?"

Saladin and Richard.—Saladin was a generous as well as a brave enemy. When Richard lay ill of a fever, the Sultan sent him grapes from Damascus and snow from the mountains. The two often met in the truces agreed upon and exchanged courtesies and entertainment. The story is told that Richard amazed Saladin by his strength of arm in cleaving a bar of iron in two by one stroke of his battle-axe, and that Saladin astonished Richard by showing him how his keen Damascus blade would sever in parts a feather pillow, or separate a silk veil laid across its edge.

Richard in prison.—This Crusade ended by a truce between the armies, and Richard started homeward. The king was shipwrecked on the coast of Italy and had to proceed on foot and in disguise with a few friends through Austria. The Duke of Austria, who was an enemy of the English king, discovered him, took him prisoner, and sold him to the emperor of Germany, another enemy. He was then shut up in a castle on the Rhine, and no one was told what had become of him. For a time his own people thought he was dead.

Richard was of a dauntless spirit and of a powerful body. The tower could not subdue him, nor the coarse food weaken his frame. He was cheerful and hopeful and amused himself by singing and playing

the harp, of which he was very fond, though he knew his captors might slay him at any time.

Richard and Blondel.—Of his rescue the people have preserved the following beautiful legend. The king had in England a faithful follower, named Blondel, who was a minstrel and accustomed to sing and play the harp with his master. Blondel sought his lost king, saying, "I will sing at every prison and castle in Europe. If my master hears me he will answer." After long wanderings, Blondel came to the castle on the Rhine where his master was confined. He sang and played as was his custom, when to his joy he heard the song repeated and a harp respond to his own.

It did not take long for the king to let the minstrel know that he was alive and a prisoner. Joyfully Blondel hastened home with the news, when the English people at once demanded the surrender of the king. The emperor required a ransom, as was the custom in those days. This the English people cheerfully raised and Richard was restored to his people.

End of the Feudal System.—The Crusades were a failure so far as rescuing the Holy Land from the Turks was concerned, but they served a great purpose in the history of the world. The thousands of people who engaged in the Crusades had their minds enlarged by new scenes, new ideas, new thoughts. The whole of Europe became alive to the possibili-

EUROPE
ABOUT THE TIME OF THE FIRST CRUSADE, 1097
FIRST CRUSADE
THIRD CRUSADE
Caspian Sea
Black Sea
Baltic Sea
North Sea
Aegean Sea
Adriatic Sea
Mediterranean Sea
Atlantic Ocean
RUSSIA
Norgorod
Kiev
LITHUANIA
PRUSSIANS
POMERANIANS
SWEDEN
NORWAY
DENMARK
KINGDOM OF POLAND
KINGDOM OF HUNGARY
Kalocsa
HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE
GERMANY
Cologne
Sopron
AUSTRIA
Milan
Venice
Pisa
Genoa
Rome
Naples
SERVIA
CROATIA
SARDINIA
SICILY
Fleet
Tunis
Tripoli
Paris
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
Lyons
Avignon
Marseilles
Barcelona
Valencia
KINGDOM OF CASTILE
KINGDOM OF LEON
PORTUGAL
Lisbon
KINGDOM OF SCOTLAND
Edinburgh
KINGDOM OF ENGLAND
London
IRELAND
Leslay
Richard's fleet
Philip Augusta
Eichard's fleet
LAND OF THE PECHENEGS
TURKISH
Constantinople
Adrianople
Nicaea
SULTANATE OF ROUM
LANDS OF THE SELJUKIAN TURKS
ARMENIA
GEORGIA
ARMENIANS
Edessa
Antioch
Tripoli
Damascus
Acre
Tyre
Jaffa
Jerusalem
Alexandria
CALIPHATE OF CAIRO
ARABIA

ties of the East, and the wonders of oriental life and skill and products created a great desire to bring Europe and Asia into closer relation. For military usages, Europe owed to the Crusaders such things as drums and tents, the system of "Coat of Arms" or heraldic devices on shields by which one group of knights could be told from another, and many valuable ideas in building and taking fortified places.

The Feudal System practically ended with the Crusades, because many of the lords were killed or died in the Holy Land, or sold all they had to cover the expenses of their adventures. Many merchants grew rich in the care of pilgrims and in providing for the armies, as well as by selling the wonderful products of the East to the eager buyers of the western world.

20. THE PRINCE OF TRAVELERS

Venice.—About this time Venice became the largest and richest city in Europe. She was the queen of the Adriatic. Marble palaces stood along her many canals, where princes and rich merchants lived; traders from all nations crowded her markets; wares from all countries filled her warehouses; ships from every port were gathered in her harbor.

Stories of China and the East.—The talk always was of rich countries far to the east. Pilgrims and soldiers from the Crusades and traders from these distant lands brought word of cities whose streets

were paved with gold, of gardens heavy with spices, of courts and kings so resplendent that the mind was bewildered with their glories. It was a fairy tale of China that made the merchants of Venice greedy to discover for themselves the wonders of this far-off land.

During the Middle Ages Venice became the largest and richest city in Europe. It was built on a great number of small islands, and canals were used for streets. The gondola was used for transportation.

The Polo family.—There was a rich family in Venice named Polo. Here lived Nicolo Polo, with his brother Maffio and his son Marco. Hearing of the riches of China the three Polos decided to travel to that country and see for themselves. It took them four years going overland to reach the cities

they were seeking. They went through Palestine, Arabia, Persia, and Turkestan. They walked most of the way and were in no hurry, for many marvels engaged their attention on every side. At last they reached China, where Kublai Khan was ruling at the time.

The Polos in China.—The Polos found the Chinese of that day very much as they are at the present time. They had high cheekbones, were of a yellow complexion, with narrow eyes, and wore their hair in a braid down their back. They wore long, loose coats, richly embroidered, little cloth shoes, and pointed hats with broad brims.

The wanderers found gorgeous temples covered with carved ornaments, and containing idols before which the people burned a strange, sweet incense. The houses were of curious design and workmanship, the shops were full of carvings and curiosities. The fields bore rice in great abundance. The Polos took time to see it all. They gained the favor of Kublai Khan, who sent them on several important missions and who talked with them freely about the West and the city of Venice from which they had come.

At last the Polos decided to return to Venice. Kublai Khan filled their bags with rare clothing and jewels and wept on the day of their departure. They had been absent from Venice for twenty-five years and everybody in that city had long since given

them up for dead. The palace of the Polos was vacant, the servants had grown old, their friends had died or moved away, and the name of Polo was seldom mentioned.

The Polos return to Venice.—One day three rough-looking men landed at the quay at Venice and

The Polos visit China, where they found six hundred years ago customs and habits very much like those of the Chinese of the present day.

walked across the square of St. Mark. Their clothes were shabby, their hair long and matted, and their beards uncut. About their waists were hung scimitars such as the Tartars use. One of them led by a chain a dog he had brought from Tartary. They

had the appearance of vagrants from some country who had wandered into Venice by accident. They tramped across the square. The people looked at them in astonishment. They were the three Polos returning to a city they had almost forgotten and whose people had almost forgotten them.

They took a gondola and told the gondolier to land them at the Polo palace. Marco knocked loudly at the portal. An old servant demanded to know who they were and what they wanted. "We are your masters, returned to Venice. Open the door and let us in," replied Nicolo.

The Polos give a banquet.—The servant, however, drove them away. They were forced to take lodgings in a near-by inn for the time. After a few days, the three men persuaded the servants to let them give a banquet in the old palace, and to prove to those they invited that they were really the owners returned after a long absence.

The Polos sent around to the palace a number of boxes which were carefully stored in the palace, and plenty of money to pay for the banquet. The guests were invited and came with many misgivings. The banquet itself was a grand affair. The three hosts had had their hair cut and their beards trimmed, but were still clothed in the rough garments they had worn at first. There was much talk of the old days in Venice, with which the hosts showed great familiarity.

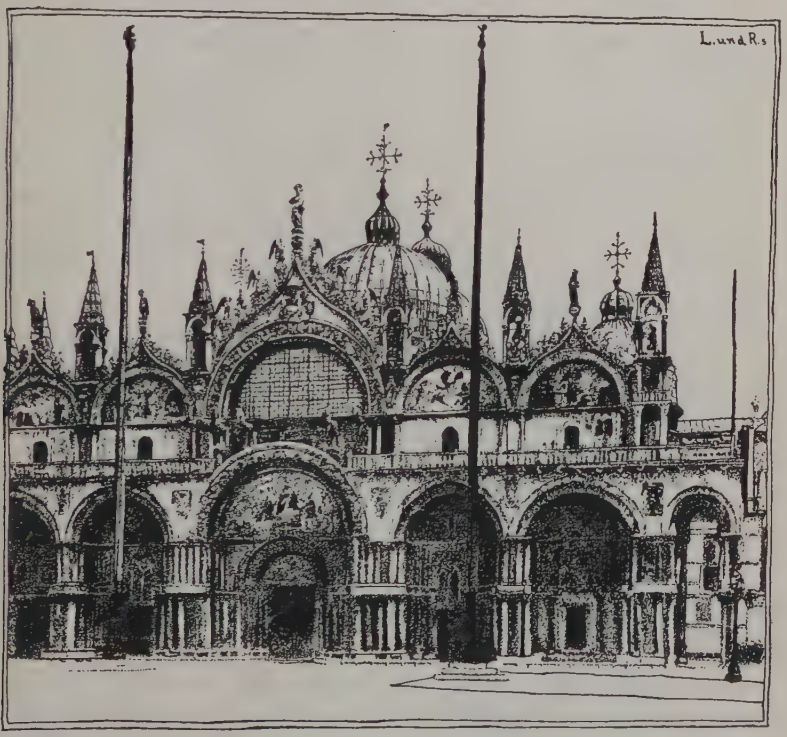
Near the end of the feast the three Polos arose and withdrew from the room. When they returned they wore the richest and most becoming garments that could be procured in Venice. Jewels sparkled on their fingers and on their shoebuckles. Their manners were changed from those of rough travelers to those of real noblemen. The guests looked at them in astonishment.

The astonished guests.—Then the old clothes were brought in by the servants and were ripped open in the presence of the guests. Out fell from the seams quantities of diamonds, rubies, and other precious stones. Then the chests were brought out and unpacked, and behold! silks, velvets, jars of spices and perfumes, embroideries, carved ivory ornaments, and other rare and beautiful things. The guests looked on in amazement at all this wealth.

Marco Polo told the wonderful story of the long wanderings of his father, his uncle, and himself. He convinced the guests that they were the real Polos, and that they had visited China and that it was a land rich beyond the dreams of avarice. There was no longer any doubt of the identity of the three men. They were indeed the Polos. They settled down in their palace amid the wealth and luxury which rightly belonged to them.

Marco Polo writes a book.—Years afterward Marco Polo was captured in a sea fight between the fleets of Venice and Genoa. He was put in prison

with a friend of his. He passed the time by dictating to his friend all his adventures in the eastern countries, which account his friend faithfully set down



The Cathedral of St. Mark in Venice was begun in 830 and completed after several centuries. The style of architecture is known as Byzantine, which arose in the ancient Byzantium, now the city of Constantinople.

in a book. The book was copied and was read by many people. Nearly two hundred years later it fell into the hands of Christopher Columbus. His desire to reach China and the East was greatly en-

hanced by reading the adventures of Marco Polo, whom the world called the Prince of Travelers.

21. THE RISE OF ENGLAND

About thirty years before the Crusades began there was a Saxon king of England named Harold. Hardly had he been crowned before William, Duke of Normandy, claimed that the throne was his because it had been promised him by Edward the Confessor, who was king before Harold, and also because Harold himself, once when he was in Normandy, had sworn to help him become king.

Harold and William of Normandy.—William of Normandy prepared to invade England and take the throne away from Harold. He collected a force of men and ships off the coast of Normandy, and after waiting for several weeks for a favorable wind, sailed to England and landed not far from Hastings. He began to ravage the country in all directions, for Harold's army was busy elsewhere repelling an incursion of the Danes.

The battle of Hastings.—Harold's army at last came to meet the Normans and the battle of Hastings was fought October 14, 1066. Early in the morning the battle began and late in the day it continued. The Normans charged up a hill, where the English were intrenched, but were repulsed. William ordered his men to shoot their arrows into the air and let them fall upon the English. Many were

slain in this way and Harold himself was struck in the eye. The Normans pretended to retreat and the English rushed forward in great haste. The Normans turned and cut down their pursuers in great numbers. Harold was slain, the English fled, and the battle flags of Normandy floated over the conquered field. This great battle began the Norman Conquest, which exerted a lasting influence over the destinies of England.

Upon the ground where Harold fell William afterwards built an abbey, which he called Battle Abbey, a rich and splendid palace through many years, though now a ruin overgrown with ivy.

The equestrian statue of William the Conqueror, who was crowned king of England on Christmas Day in the year 1066.

William the Conqueror.—On Christmas Day (1066) William was crowned in Westminster Abbey as William I, though he is better known as William the Conqueror. William was a giant in size, of enormous strength, with a pitiless disposition to those who offended him. His outbursts of anger at times were terrible. He knew no will but his own. But he made a good ruler of England, though at

times a heartless one. His laws were so strictly observed that it was said one could travel over his realm with a bag of gold and never be disturbed. He was fond of hunting, and the grim king grew soft in the woods because he "loved the red deer as though he were their father."

English and Normans.—The estates of the nobles who had fought against him were seized and given to Norman knights and nobles. Many English families of the present day date their ancestral homes back to this grant of William the Conqueror. More Normans came over to live in England, until the Norman language and the Saxon language became one language, our present English language.

Norman influence over England.—A new element was added to the English people, and new ideas were introduced into England. Architects from Normandy built castles, fortresses, cathedrals, and abbeys. Norman merchants brought new wares, and weavers from Flanders new industries. Gradually the two elements united into one, and the people of England became more energetic in body, more alert in mind, and more varied in occupation than they otherwise would have been. The English people, the English language, and English customs, are largely a mingling of the old Norman and old Anglo-Saxon elements.

King John.—About a hundred years after the death of William the Conqueror there came to the

throne of England a king named John. He was the brother of Richard the Lion-Heart. He was a weak, foolish, treacherous man whom his subjects cordially

The dominion of William the Conqueror extended over England and a large part of France.

hated. He was guilty of putting to death, by his own hand, his young nephew Arthur, for fear the people would make him king. He was so untrust-

worthy, cruel, and unjust that the lords and barons of the kingdom rose against him and demanded that he sign an agreement or charter preserving to the people the rights that were due them.

John signs the Great Charter.—The barons drew up their demands. John at first refused to look at them. When he did he flew into a great rage. An army of two thousand knights, supported by many townsmen, marched against him, and set themselves up in London. The king was compelled to meet them, for he was deserted by all his followers. At a meadow called Runnymede, June 15, 1215, the barons and the king met. There he signed the immortal document known as Magna Charta or the Great Charter, which is the greatest document in English history.

Provisions of the Great Charter.—Whereas up to this time the king's will had been above the law, the Charter expressly provided that the law should be above the king's will. This laid the foundation of the supremacy of the law, and sanctioned rebellion against any king who refused to obey the law. The king promised to regard the rights of his barons, and the barons agreed to regard the rights of their dependents. The townsmen were not to be oppressed. No merchant could be deprived of his goods for small offenses, and no farmer of his oxen, plow, wagon, or farm implements. The king could not impose any tax upon the people except by con-

sent of the Great Council of the barons. The Charter provided that no freeman should be taken, or imprisoned, or outlawed, or banished, except by the lawful judgment of his peers.

The bulwark of English liberty.—The Great Charter established the principle that the law of the land is supreme; that no taxation can be made without the consent of the taxed; that every man is entitled to speedy trial, and that by a jury of his fellowmen; that no legal suits shall take away from a man his home or the implements of his trade. Simple as these seem to us at the present time, they were new to the people then. The guarantees of the Great Charter are justly considered the bulwark of English liberty.

The rise of Parliament.—We now come to the rise of Parliament, or the establishment of a representative government. From the beginning the English kings had some sort of council to aid them in the government. In the days of the Angles and Saxons there was an assembly of the wisemen, as they were called, made up of churchmen, the king's personal followers, and the officers. This assembly helped Alfred make his laws, and was in existence at the time William the Conqueror came to England. After the Norman Conquest there was the Grand Council of the lords and barons, all of whom were vassals of the king. They could only advise the king, they could not control him.

A time came when the kings needed more money to carry on the government, and this money had to come from the wealthy landowners and merchants who were not nobles. Therefore the kings began to ask the towns and counties to send representatives to sit in the Great Council or Parliament and give their consent to the taxes. This would make it easier to collect the taxes, and would cause less complaint. In this meeting every man was allowed to speak his mind, and to say openly and without fear of arrest or hindrance anything he chose that concerned the welfare of the people, or the good of the government. For that reason it was called Parliament, from a French word which meant "to speak," or "to parley," as we say at the present day.

The upper and lower houses.—At first the representatives of the towns and counties sat in the same room with the lords and barons, but in 1340 Parliament was divided into two houses. The upper house was the House of Lords and included all those who bore a title of nobility and who held their seats by inheritance and position. The lower house was called the House of Commons, and was made up of those elected by the towns and counties.

Gradually the power of Parliament grew stronger, and the power of the kings grew weaker, until at last Parliament was recognized as the supreme power in the English government. The rulers could not levy or collect taxes, declare war or make peace,

nor make any kind of law. All these were left to Parliament.

The English Parliament became a model upon which legislative assemblies for other nations were made. In nearly all countries, including our own, the highest legislative body is composed of two houses, one being a check upon the other, and all dependent upon the will of the people. This kind of law-making assembly is probably the greatest gift that England has made to the world.

22. THE RISE OF FRANCE

The Hundred Years' War.—The king of England owned much territory in France. There was constant quarrel between the rival kings of the two countries, and between the merchants of the two nations. Quarrels frequently bring on wars, and so it was that England and France began in 1338 that long series of struggles known as the Hundred Years' War. The result would determine whether France should be a possession of England, or an independent nation.

Edward III was king of England when the war began. Philip VI was king of France. The war was waged on the soil of France. The English armies overran French territory, ravaging the crops, burning houses, and carrying off much plunder.

The battle of Crécy.—The famous battle of Crécy was fought in 1346. The English army found itself

trapped by a French force five times its size. The English were drawn up on the sloping ground in front of a little village. The young son of King Edward, known as the Black Prince, from the color

At the battle of Crécy, the English await the onset of the French, while King Edward watches from the windmill the exploits of his son, the Black Prince.

of his armor, was put in command of the first division. The king said to him, "My son, this day the battle shall be yours. I have given you a command worthy the royal blood in your veins." Then the

king retired to a windmill in the rear of the line to watch the battle.

The archers were placed in front. They were famous bowmen, and their arrows, three feet long, were very deadly. The battle did not begin until five o'clock in the afternoon. The French moved forward in eager haste, their bowmen ready to discharge their shafts. At the moment of attack a rainfall wet the strings of the French bowmen so that their bows became useless. The English were more wary and had kept their own bows in canvas bags. When the rain was over the English archers were prepared to meet the oncoming French. So terrible was the discharge of arrows that it looked as if snow was falling in the faces of the French host.

The French archers fled in dismay, recoiling upon the ranks of the knights behind them. So enraged was the French king at the conduct of his own archers, that he ordered his knights to cut them down as they ran back upon the horses.

The blind king of Bohemia.—Among those who were in the battle that day was the blind king of Bohemia, an ally of Philip. His horse was led by two knights, who dashed into the fray leading the old king to his last charge. Of course he and his knights were soon killed by the English archers and horsemen. Edward, the Black Prince, came to the portion of the field where the king lay dead. Reaching down the prince removed the helmet of the king

and took off the three feathers, which he ever afterwards wore himself, and which today are in the coat-of-arms of the Prince of Wales. He then took the motto of the king of Bohemia, which was "Ich dien," meaning "I serve."

The Black Prince.—The battle was going against the English, on account of the great numbers of the French. The Black Prince was hard pressed. A knight rode in haste to King Edward who from the windmill was watching the fight, and begged him to come to the aid of his son. The king asked, "Is my son dead, or unhorsed, or wounded?" The reply was that he was not. "Then I shall not come to his aid. I will that the boy this day shall win his spurs, and that all the glory of the battle shall be his." The king remained in the mill to the end of the battle.

As the day closed the English archers rallied and charged the French knights, whose horses were terrified by the sharp arrows that wounded them in many places. The French fled when night fell and the field was left to the English. Crécy had become another great English victory.

The war between the two countries wore on year after year. Sometimes there would be fighting constantly and then years would pass without any battles. Kings and rulers came and died, and others took their places. In 1429 there appeared on the scene a young maiden, whom the world knows as Joan of Arc.

Joan of Arc.—Joan was an uneducated French peasant girl, living in the village of Domrémy, in Lorraine. Her temperament was very religious. She was overwhelmed by the wretched state of her country, devastated by war, and broken by the sufferings of the people. At fourteen years of age she began to hear "voices" that told her to go to Charles, who was claiming the throne of France, and have him crowned king. The voices also told her she was to help deliver France from the English.

Joan of Arc, also known as the Maid of Orleans, whose religious fervor led the forces of France to many victories over the English. She was burned at the stake in Rouen by the English who had taken her prisoner.

Joan put on armour, wore boy's clothes, and had her hair cut short. She mounted a splendid horse and rode to the castle where the king lived. When she was admitted to see him she told him that she had heard voices from on high that bade her lead an army and drive the English away from Orleans, a city that was besieged and in great distress.

Charles agreed that she should have her way. She was given a banner of snow-white linen, and her

armor was pure white inlaid with silver. Her sword was one that had lain in the tomb of a dead knight. Her horse was coal black, accustomed to battle. In this way, with a large army she set out for Orleans, the soldiers singing hymns, accompanied by chanting priests. The English were astonished at this most unwarlike army, led by a strange girl, dressed in white armor, and without hindrance let them go into the town, thinking to capture them all in one trap.

The people of Orleans caught the inspiration of her courage. They believed God had sent them an angel of deliverance. Under her leadership they made many sallies from the gates of the town and overthrew the towers the English had built. The French seemed suddenly to have become unconquerable. The English were seized with alarm and began to think the maid was a witch. After ten days the English withdrew and Orleans was saved. From that day Joan was also known as the Maid of Orleans.

Shortly afterwards, at Rheims, Charles was crowned king and the French people took on a new hope of deliverance from their ancient enemy. Joan led other armies into other parts of France, and everywhere victory followed her white banner. The English lost much of the territory they had conquered, and were convinced that Joan was a sorceress and that so long as she was alive there was

no hope of their success. Even the French generals became jealous of her and began to whisper evil words about her.

The Maid a prisoner.—Now we come to the sad part of her story. In a battle around one of the towns in France, Joan had led her brave forces against the English, but being sorely pressed, the French ran back into the town, shut the gates, leaving the maid and a few followers outside. Of course she was soon a prisoner in the hands of her enemies. Tauntingly they said to her, "Now we have you, you witch. We will make short work of those inspired by the evil one. You shall hear other voices than those you have spoken of."

Burned at the stake.—She was taken to Rouen and shut up in a prison. She was chained to her bed and watched day and night by rough soldiers who made sport of her misfortunes. She was tried as a sorceress and condemned to be burned at the stake. One spring day, in the early morning, she was led out of her prison, given a little wooden cross to hold in her hand, and tied to a stake around which wood was piled. As the flames mounted to her body she uttered no cry, but quietly said, "The voices I heard were of God. They still sustain me. They have never deceived me." An Englishman, standing nearby and seeing her heroic death, said in remorse, "We are lost; we have burned a saint."

The expulsion of the English from France now

began and went on for several years. Paris was retaken, the English withdrew from Normandy and Aquitaine. Only the town of Calais remained in their hands. Finally in 1453 the war came to a close without any formal treaty of peace.

France had recovered all the territory claimed by the English, had practically established its present boundaries to the sea, had shaken off any pretension of the English kings to the throne of France, and had risen into a nation that henceforth was to be recognized in the affairs of the world.

23. THE END OF THE MIDDLE AGES

That period in the world's history known as the Middle Ages began with the fall of the Roman Empire in 476 and closed with the events that occurred from 1450 to 1500. In other words, the Middle Ages lasted from the fall of Rome to the discovery of America, a period of a thousand years. It is well for us to know some of the events that immediately preceded the beginning of modern times.

Schools.—Schools and universities sprang up all over Europe at the end of the Middle Ages. There were fifty of these universities in 1400. Some of them were without buildings and appliances, consisting mainly of large gatherings of students who came from everywhere to listen to scholars lecture, to join in the debates, and to read such books as could be supplied. Some of these universities

claimed to have twelve, and even as many as twenty thousand students. Nearly all the great European universities of the present day had their beginnings in this way and at that time.

University of Paris.—In the University of Paris the lectures were given in hired buildings on Straw Street, so called from the straw thrown on the floors where the students sat to listen to the lectures. The students made copies of the textbook which the lecturer explained sentence by sentence. Sometimes the students took notes. There were no laboratories, and no libraries, and not much discipline. Only a great mob of students listening to the discourse of some teacher, generally upon some subject that was too profound for them to understand.

Roger Bacon.—Among the most famous scholars toward the close of the Middle Ages was Roger Bacon, an English monk. He was a great seeker after scientific facts, and expressed opinions very daring in those days. In fact, he spent fourteen years in prison for his opinions. He studied very hard, more than once searching all over Europe for some book he needed. More than two hundred years before the discovery of America he wrote about the possibility of reaching Asia by sailing west into the Atlantic. He dreamed a great deal about explosives, and among his writings is a formula for making gunpowder, though he may have had it from the Arabs or some other eastern people. He foretold the pos-

sibility of steam as a motive power, and prophesied that wagons and ships would some day move without horses and sails.

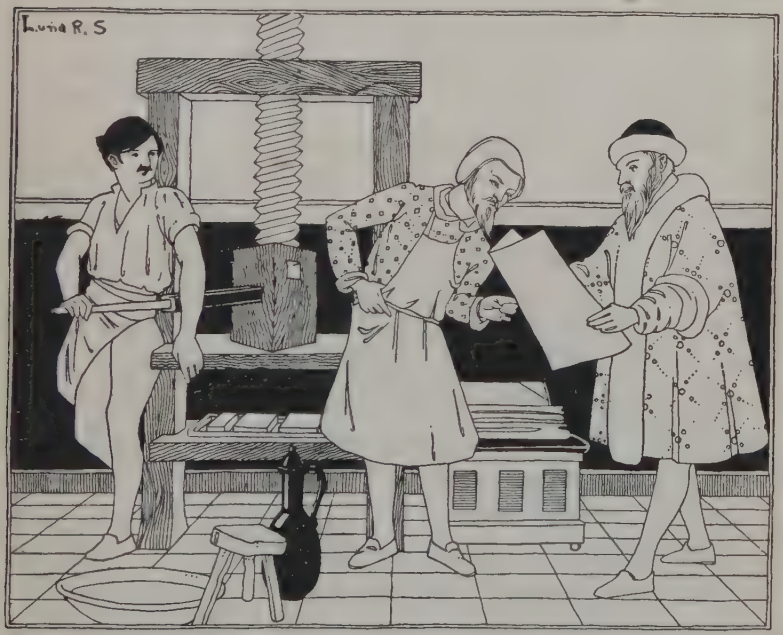
Roger Bacon was more than a hundred years ahead of his times and was afraid to announce all of his discoveries and inventions for fear that the people would accuse him of magic, and of having dealings with evil spirits.

Early books made by copyists.—You will recall that in early days all books were made by copyists, with painstaking care, letter by letter. Therefore there were few books then as compared to modern times, and those were closely guarded, for they were the precious product of months of labor. When an Italian ruler desired to form a library, just before the invention of printing, he engaged forty-five copyists. After two years of hard work they produced only two hundred volumes. Literature as we know it was not read by the people, but was read to them. There were a few scholars, and those belonged mostly to the Church. The mass of people had no learning because they had no books.

In order to save time the bookmakers began to hasten their work, and resorted to carved blocks of wood on which a whole page had been engraved, and then stamped on the sheets. But this was a crude process, more like stamping than printing.

Invention of printing.—The invention of printing by movable type, such as we use today, is generally

ascribed to John Gutenberg, of Mainz, Germany, who printed a book from movable type about the year 1450. He devised a crude sort of printing press and began to print books, especially the Bible, in large



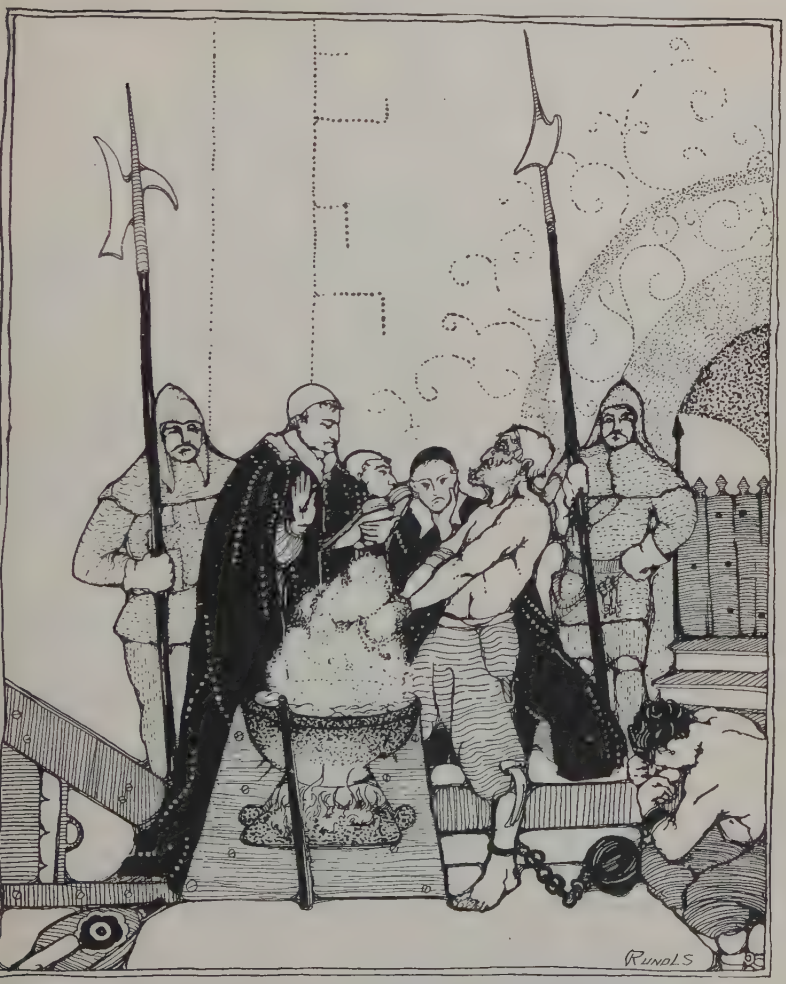
John Gutenberg, of Mainz, Germany, invents printing by movable type about the year 1450, thereby making books, particularly the Bible, cheap and abundant.

quantities. Of course this process at once cheapened books and in a short while the means of learning were placed in reach of all classes. In fifty years after the invention of printing there were more than two hundred places in Europe where books and

pamphlets were printed, which were eagerly seized upon by a world hungry for knowledge.

The mariner's compass.—Another invention of great importance was the mariner's compass, by means of which sailors could at all times direct the course of their vessels. The compass consists of a box in which a magnetic needle is carefully suspended, so that it always points to the north. Every vessel nowadays is equipped with a mariner's compass. Before the compass came into use sailors had to depend upon the stars and the sun, and when these did not shine the vessel was hopelessly lost. This made sailors afraid to venture far from land, for fear of disaster to their vessels, but when the compass came into use, no matter how dark the night or how cloudy the day, the course of the vessel could be accurately laid. Then the sailors no longer feared to sail into the seas and explore new shores, for they could always tell where their vessel was going. The properties of the magnetic needle were known a long time before the mariner's compass was devised.

Other inventions and devices.—About the end of the thirteenth century, the lens was invented, the telescope was devised, and spectacles came into use. The Arabic numerals began to take the place of the Roman system of notation. One can easily divide 49 by 7, but it is difficult to divide XLIX by VII. Gunpowder came into general use about the year 1500, though it had been known as an explosive com-



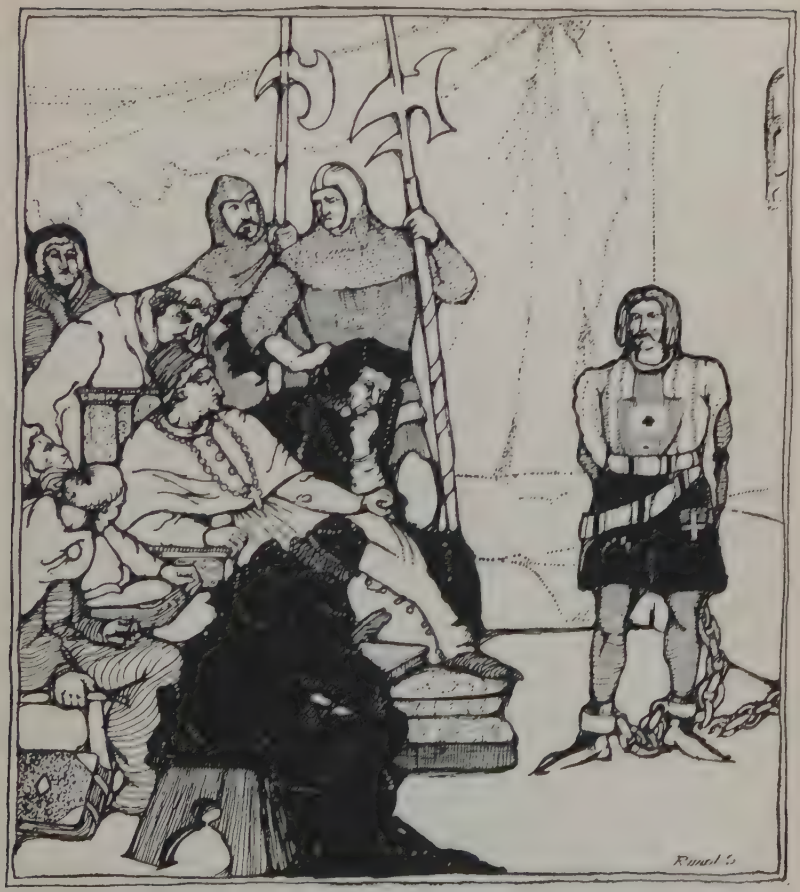
Ordeal by hot water. The accused person was declared innocent if his hands were not scalded.

pound since the days of Roger Bacon. As early as 1350 there were three powder-works in Germany, and cannon were being used in war. It was quite clear that the old stone castles were powerless against the attacks of cannon and men stopped building them. Gunpowder did away with armor, arrows, spears, and like implements of war.

It may be said that the invention of printing, by which books were multiplied indefinitely, the discovery of the lens, which made possible the telescope and the microscope, the use of gunpowder, which changed the art of war, and the mariner's compass, by which the course of vessels at sea could be directed, were the four great things at the end of the Middle Ages which revolutionized the enterprise of the world and hastened the coming of modern progress.

Finally the people began to lay aside their superstitions and have a more wholesome regard for law and common sense. Some of the old superstitions were still used in trying persons accused of crimes. It is true that a man who was accused of a crime could bring any number of witnesses to prove his innocence, but if the court was not satisfied then he had to stand the "ordeal," which was considered an appeal to the judgment of God.

Trial by ordeal.—These ordeals were foolish and cruel. In the ordeal by hot iron the person accused had to carry a red-hot iron in his bare hands a cer-



Trial by jury. The accused was judged by the evidence submitted to his peers.

tain distance. In the ordeal by hot water he had to thrust his hand into a pot of boiling water. In either case the injured hand was bound up for three days,

after which the judge looked at it to see if it was healing properly, then passed judgment of guilt or innocence.

In the ordeal by cold water the accused person was bound hand and foot and thrown into a deep stream or pond. If he floated he was guilty. If he sank he was innocent and was rescued, if his friends could get to him in time to save him.

In the ordeal of battle the accuser offered to fight the person he accused. Weapons were chosen, the judges stood by to insure fair play, and the fight began. It was thought that God would give the victory to the person accused if he was innocent.

Gradually these superstitions were abandoned and in almost all countries there was instituted the trial by jury, in which a man who was accused of wrong-doing appealed to the judgment of his fellow-men, chosen impartially to hear both sides of the case and to render their decision according to the facts as they were told to the jury.

TOPICS FOR REVIEW

The Feudal System.—Defenseless condition of small communities. The Feudal System; landlord and vassal. The lord's castle. The vassal's hut. Duties of vassals. The three classes of society. The business of the lords; the occupation of the vassals. The order of knighthood. Life inside the castle; the rooms; the halls; the amusements. Present-day ruins.

What it meant to be a knight.—The page; his conduct; his duties; his education; his horsemanship. Hunting and hawking. The squire; his training; his duties in battle. Becoming a knight. A knight's duties. The challenge. The combat.

How the people lived.—The lords as owners of the land. How the serfs were bound to the soil. Working the lords' lands. Other duties of the serfs. The houses of the serfs; their food; their clothing; other conditions of life. The awakening of the serfs and the improvement in their condition; growth of villages and towns. The rise of new ideas of liberty; the decline of the power and influence of the lord. Granting of privileges. The rise of "free cities." Walled cities and their necessity. The conditions inside the walls. The growth of cities and the spirit of freedom.

The influence of the Church.—Civilization during the Middle Ages; the Christian Church; the priests and missionaries. Christmas and Easter. Excommunication for offenses. The interdict. How the Church gained power; how it was supported. The decline of paganism. Building mediaeval churches and cathedrals. The cathedral the center of community thought. The Roman Church and the Pope. The work of monks; copying manuscripts; teaching school. Life in the monastery. How the Church gained wealth; what power the Church had in temporal affairs. What we owe to the Church during the Middle Ages.

The Crusades.—What the Crusades were. The Turks and the Holy Sepulchre; the Church at Jerusalem; the treatment of Christians and pilgrims. Who composed the Crusade armies; their hardships. Why called Crusaders; the number of Crusades. Peter the Hermit. Result of his Crusade. The First Crusade. Jerusalem captured and recaptured. Godfrey of Bouillon. Crusade of Richard I.

Hardship of the Crusaders. Heroism of Richard. Saladin and Richard. Story of Richard's capture, discovery, and ransom. The failure of the Crusaders. The end of the Feudal System.

The Prince of Travelers.—Venice, China, and the East. The Polo family. The Polos in China. Their wanderings and what they saw. Their return to Venice. The banquet; the astonished guests. Marco Polo's book.

The rise of England.—Harold the Saxon and William of Normandy. William invades England. Battle of Hastings; beginning of Norman conquest. The Battle Abbey. William the Conqueror; his disposition; his habits. Distribution of English estates. The mingling of Normans and English; the effect on the English language. The Norman influence on English ideas. King John; his character; his conduct. The demands of the barons. The Great Charter; its provisions; the bulwark of English liberty. The original council for making laws. The need for money and the rise of Parliament. The upper and the lower house. The power of Parliament. Parliament a model of representative government.

The rise of France.—The causes of the Hundred Years' War. The battle of Crécy; the Black Prince and his exploits; incidents of the battle. The blind king of Bohemia. The coming of Joan of Arc. Her visions; her visits to the king; her armor, horse, banner. The siege of Orleans; the Maid of Orleans. The capture of the Maid; her death. The territory of France at the end of the war.

The end of the Middle Ages.—The period covered by the Middle Ages. Beginning of schools and universities. The University of Paris. Roger Bacon; his writings; his prophecies. How early books were made; resorting to carved blocks. Invention of printing by movable type. John Gutenberg. The mariner's compass; of what it con-

sisted, and of what value to mariners. Other inventions of the times. The four inventions and discoveries of the most value. The trial by ordeal; by hot irons; by hot water; by cold water; by battle. Abandonment of these superstitions; trial by jury.

SUBJECTS FOR DISCUSSION

The strength and weakness of the Feudal System. The evil results of class distinctions. How does our tenant system differ from the Feudal System? The hard life of the serfs of olden times. Why they rebelled. How the people gradually came from under the power of the lords and barons.

What was the influence for good of the Christian Church during the Middle Ages? What do we owe to the industry and learning of the monks? What zeal caused the Crusades? What have men endured under religious enthusiasm? What effect did the Crusades have on European thought? What effect did the stories of the eastern traveler have on the mind of other men in Europe? Of what advantage was the Norman Conquest to England? Why is the Great Charter the bulwark of liberty? Of what advantage is a representative government? How is our Congress like the English Parliament? In what respects is it different?

Discuss the advantage of movable type in making books. What printed material is thus made possible? Upon what fact is the mariner's compass based? Discuss the value of the lens; of the use of gunpowder; of the mariner's compass. Discuss the folly of old-time and present-day superstitions.

CHAPTER V

THE BEGINNING OF MODERN TIMES

24. THE PERIOD OF THE RENAISSANCE

The Renaissance.—The period in the world's history from 1350 to 1500 is generally known as the age of the Renaissance, which means the age of the "rebirth" of the world from its old customs and ideas into new customs, new ideas, and larger enterprises.

It was the age when printing of books began and people read for themselves; when men's minds inquired into the secrets of nature; when poets and artists and architects wrote great books, painted beautiful pictures, carved wonderful statues, and built noble churches and stately houses. The rise of universities also brought about the revival of learning. Mankind everywhere was coming out of the darkness of the Middle Ages into the light of modern times. This is what is meant by the Renaissance.

The revival of literature and art in Italy.—Italy was naturally the land for the revival of literature and art. On the very soil where the ancient literature was produced and the ancient art preserved, there arose after a thousand years of indifference a passionate desire to produce again great literature

and to restore the ancient glory of Italian art. Florence and Venice had become cities of great wealth, beauty, and splendor. The people also wanted beautiful churches and palaces and pictures and statues, and were willing to reward the architects and artists who produced them. There were men of rare genius to meet the call of the age. From 1470 to 1550 Italian painting and sculpture and architecture reached their greatest perfection. In those eighty years there appeared a score of great artists whose works have never been surpassed, except by a few of the ancient Greek sculptors.

Desire for eastern luxuries.—All this time there was an ever-increasing interest in the eastern trade. Europe was dependent on the countries of Asia for her luxuries, and the demand for luxuries was ever increasing. Precious stones, silks, rugs, carpets, drugs, perfumes, dyes, and fragrant woods all came from the East. One of the chief luxuries was spices. The unpalatable cooking, the coarse food, the monotonous diet of the Europeans, were made most agreeable by oriental seasoning. The people soon learned to like pepper, mace, ginger, cinnamon, and other condiments with which they seasoned their bread, puddings, sauces, and wines. In the fifteenth century Europe could feed herself with coarse food, and clothe herself with rough garments, but for the luxuries of life she was entirely dependent upon the older and more skillful civilization of Asia.

Routes of travel from the East.—There were three general routes of travel from the East to the West. The southernmost route was almost entirely a sea route. Beginning as far east as the Spice Islands, vessels would sail along the coasts of Java and Sumatra, thence to Ceylon, and across the Arabian Sea to Arabia and up the Red Sea and on to Cairo and Alexandria. Cairo was a large trading city at the time. One traveler stated that over thirty thousand boats were engaged in handling the eastern trade, and connecting it with European ports.

The second route lay through India and Persia, connecting all the cities of those countries with the ports on the Mediterranean Sea. Long trains of camels richly laden bore their burdens for months along those routes, gathering from city to city the merchandise to be disposed of at the end of the journey.

The third route lay to the north, beginning on the coasts of China, going through the ancient cities of that country and Turkestan, to the Caspian and Black Seas and on to Constantinople. It was a journey of a hundred days over deserts and across mountains, beset with many hardships and perils.

Dangers and hardships of eastern travel.—By those devious and dangerous routes, by sailing vessels, by caravans of camels, by trains of mules, in wagons, on horses, or human shoulders, the products of the East were brought within reach of the mer-

chants of the West. There were storms and pirates to be encountered by sea, robbers to be fought by land, tolls for passing through strange lands, and port duties to be paid. When the merchandise finally reached the European consumer it had increased in value many times its original cost.

The menace of the Turks.—For many years the caravans plying between the East and West were undisturbed. About 1300, however, the Turks began a series of conquests that spread their dominion gradually to the Mediterranean Sea. Within a century they had become a military power that had to be reckoned with. In 1453 they conquered Constantinople, plundered the town, beheaded the principal citizens, and made slaves of the others. Turkey then became a power on the border line of the East and West that seriously affected all eastern communication. The Turks were not only Mohammedans, but they were barbarians. They had a contempt for culture and luxury, and saw in the merchants of Europe little else than a chance for plunder. When the Turks took control of the cities at the end of the trade routes, they almost crushed out any chance of profit to the European merchants in carrying on trade by caravan with the East.

The traders began to consider some other way of reaching India and China than overland through Asia. The question in the mind of the world was, Is there an all-sea way to the East, and if so, what?

Prince Henry of Portugal.—The Portuguese sailors were the most adventurous sailors of this period. Under Prince Henry the Navigator, so-called on account of his interest in sea explorations, mariners sailed their vessels further and further down the west coast of Africa, seeking for a route around that continent into India. Prince Henry gave himself up to the study of maps and charts, engaged learned men to help him, and encouraged his sailors by rewards to continue their exertions.

Bartholomew Diaz.—Prince Henry died in 1460, but his work was carried on by his followers. In 1486 a Portuguese captain, named Bartholomew Diaz, was carried by a storm far to the south, and to his surprise found that he had reached the end of Africa. He named the point of land the Cape of Good Hope, and sailed on for several hundred miles into the Indian Ocean. His sailors mutinied and made him turn back. Twelve years later Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape of Good Hope, sailed to India, secured a cargo, and returned to Portugal. Those explorations opened a seaway around Africa to India before America was discovered.

Most people at that time thought the world was flat. They had vague ideas of the extent of the ocean and knew nothing of what was beyond the reach of their vessels. Sailors were afraid of the "Sea of Darkness," as the distant waters were called, and told stories of boiling waves and sea monsters

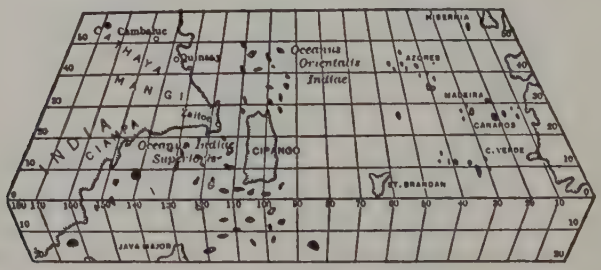
that overwhelmed ships that ventured too far from land.

The general belief that the world was flat.—As for the earth being round, there were few to believe it. How could a ship sail down one side of the earth and up the other? What kept the water from spilling off the earth, and how could one stand on the earth with his head downward? Those are foolish

The known world in the 15th century consisted of Europe, Asia, and part of Africa.

questions to us now, but they were not foolish then. However, it had been the belief of wise men for a long time that the earth was really round. Aristotle, an old Greek philosopher, several hundred years B.C., taught that the earth was round. Others had the same belief. Roger Bacon thought so. The theory was not a new one, nor was it a popular one. It was hard to make people understand how it could be so.

Toscanelli's map.—One of the famous geographers of that time was Toscanelli, who lived in Florence, Italy, where he died ten years before Columbus discovered America. He was greatly interested in travels, particularly those of Marco Polo. He studied the geography of the known world, drew maps, and wrote many letters. His fame spread far and wide until scholars and princes came to learn from him. Toscanelli believed the world was round



TOSCANELLI'S MAP

Toscanelli believed the world was round, and that by sailing west from Europe, India could be reached.

and that India could be reached by sailing west. He drew maps showing his ideas. One of these maps may have fallen into the hands of Christopher Columbus, though it is not certain.

Thus we see at the beginning of modern times a great awakening on the subject of commerce and explorations. Men were eager to reach the far East for its commerce, and the wise men were considering how to get there by way of the West.

Spain a Christian country by 1492.—While this was going on Spain rose into power as a strong nation. The Mohammedan Moors who had inhabited Spain for eight hundred years were gradually driven out by the Christian chiefs. The petty kingdoms were united by marriage of their rulers until by 1400 there were only three kingdoms, Portugal, Castile, and Aragon. Nearly a century later Isabella of Castile and Ferdinand of Aragon were married, to form one country of Spain. In 1492 their combined power drove the Moors out of Granada, leaving Spain a Christian country.

Thus we see the condition of Europe at the time when the discovery of America opened a new era in the history of the world.

25. DISCOVERING AND EXPLORING AMERICA

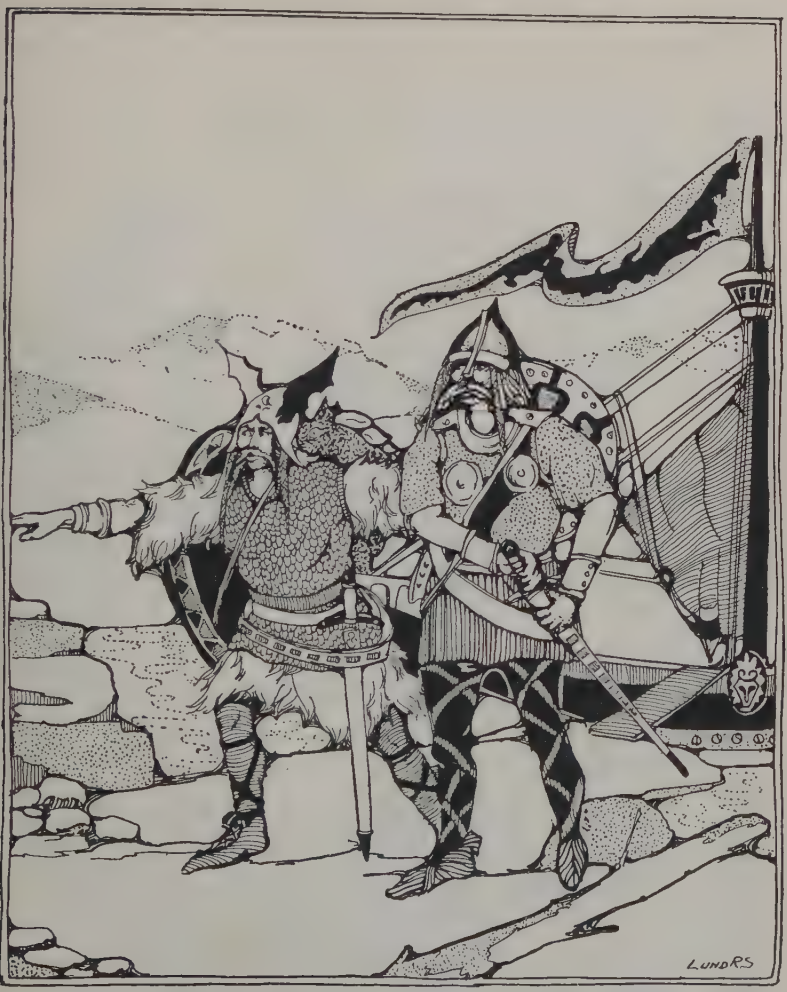
America an unknown continent.—Up to this time there was no knowledge of the great continent of America. Those learned men who thought the world was round believed that by sailing westward a few thousand miles one would come to the well-known shores of Asia. That a great continent lay beyond the Atlantic Ocean and between Europe and Asia no one had any reason to know, for no one had ever tried to find out. Even the wise men believed that the ocean one saw on the shores of England, France, and Spain was the same ocean one saw on

the shore of China, and that the distance across was not very great.

The coming of the Norsemen.—It is true that in very early days the daring and skillful sailors of the Norsemen, living somewhere in Europe, probably in what now is Norway and Sweden, sailed to Iceland and then on as far as Greenland. They founded a colony near Cape Farewell that lasted for five hundred years. Shortly after this colony was founded, about the year 1000, one of the Norse leaders, named Leif Ericson, sailed further westward in a small ship with thirty-five men and came to a strange land. We suppose they landed somewhere in Labrador and continued their voyage southward. They named the land Vinland or Vineland on account of the grapes they found growing abundantly in the woods.

The shores they may have visited.—When they returned to Greenland and told the story of the wonderful fruits, and plentiful timber, and the strange people they had seen, other sailors ventured upon voyages along the same shores. They may have come as far south as Rhode Island or Connecticut, but they left no evidence of building any forts or establishing any settlements. All trace of their appearance has disappeared. We only know of their coming at all from their old writings, called the Norse Sagas, which tell the story of their wanderings and the strange shores they visited.

But all this was unknown to Europe, and even



About the year 1000, Leif Ericson, a Norseman, and a few followers, landed in North America, probably along the shores of Labrador.

if it was known the wise men would have thought the Norsemen had landed somewhere on the northern shores of Asia. The known world at the end of the Middle Ages still consisted of Europe, Asia, and parts of Africa.

Christopher Columbus.—We now come to that great event in the history of the world known as the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus in 1492. That story is amply told in the histories of the United States. All we need to relate is that Columbus believed the world was round, and that by sailing a few thousand miles westward he would cross the ocean and come to the shores of Asia, and in this way open up a seaway to India and China for the benefit of the eastern trade. He was not trying to discover a new world, nor had he any idea of the size of the ocean upon which he proposed to sail.

Ferdinand and Isabella.—He first applied for assistance to King John of Portugal. That king, however, could not be brought to believe in a seaway to India across the dreaded ocean. Columbus then applied to Henry VII, king of England, but that cold-hearted and crafty ruler could not see any money in the enterprise and refused his assistance. Columbus then applied to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. Those rulers were at first deaf to his persuasions and arguments, but after driving the Moors out of Spain, they listened more willingly to the adven-

Christopher Columbus finally secures the aid of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, in his undertaking to sail westward to India.

turer, and the generous-hearted queen gave him all the assistance he needed for his great voyage of discovery.

Voyages of John Cabot.—As soon as it was definitely known that Columbus had really crossed the ocean and landed in what was supposed to be India or China, or at least had proved that those countries could be reached by sailing westward, great excitement arose in Europe over the discovery. Henry VII of England, with some merchants of London and Bristol, fitted out a fleet under John Cabot, an Italian sailor living in England, who in the spring of 1497 sailed westward trying to find a way to India to secure the spice trade for England. Cabot came to the mainland of North America near Cape Breton Island, at the entrance of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and took possession in the name of the king of England. The next year he explored the coast from Nova Scotia to North Carolina. But he brought back no gold, and found no seaway to India. King Henry was not interested in further voyages and the New World was left to other explorers.

Naming of America.—Americus Vespucius, a native of Florence, Italy, about the year 1501, explored the coast of South America. He boldly declared that the lands he visited were not a part of Asia, but were really a New World, unknown up to that time. His voyages and his writings made such a stir in Europe that the geographers made new maps, dividing the

world into four parts, Asia, Africa, Europe, and the New World, which they called America, after Vespucius himself. In this way did our continent get its name.

Enterprise of Spain in the New World.—Spain, at the height of her power and glory, was foremost among the nations in exploring the New World. Under the influence of her rulers and merchants Balboa crossed the Isthmus of Darien and discovered the Pacific Ocean and Magellan sailed around South America, and across the Pacific Ocean to the Philippine Islands. Here he was killed, but one of his ships completed the first voyage around the world. Ponce de Leon explored Florida, De Soto marched across the southern part of the United States and discovered the Mississippi River, Coronado explored the Mississippi Valley, Pizarro conquered Peru, and Cortes overran Mexico. All those were Spaniards, who by 1550 had taken possession of South America (except Brazil, that belonged to Portugal), of Central America, of Mexico, and a large part of the southern territory of our own country.

Spain and Portugal brought the Spanish language, Spanish architecture and customs, and the Roman Catholic religion to the countries of South America, Central America, and Mexico. Those countries still show the influence of the early Spanish control.

Long before there were any permanent white settlements in North America, the civilization of South

America had well begun. In Mexico and Peru there were universities started more than fifty years before Jamestown in Virginia was settled. In Argentina a university was founded seven years before the

In 1513 Balboa, an adventurous Spaniard, crossed the Isthmus of Darien, and was the first European to see the Pacific ocean.

Pilgrims landed in New England. In Bolivia a university was founded thirteen years before Harvard College was begun in Massachusetts. While the Indians still held undisputed sway over all North

America, there were towns, governments, schools, and churches well established in the great regions around and south of the equator.

The wealth of Spain.—Spain became immensely rich through the treasures of the New World. What with plundering the Indians and opening the gold and silver mines of South America and Mexico, and with the rich products of the forest, she fed her treasury until she became the proudest and mightiest nation in Europe. She guarded her treasures well. The Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea were closed to other nations. French or English ships found thereon were promptly sent to the bottom with all on board.

Besides the precious metals there were other valuable products from America that found their way into Europe. Among those were maize or Indian corn, cocoa, quinine, dyestuffs, and mahogany. So rich were the lands of the New World that the Atlantic coast countries became the commercial and political centers of Europe. Portugal, Spain, France, England, and Holland, became the leading powers, and the New World trade and colonization finally became the objects of rivalry and jealousy.

Spain, however, retained her hold on the New World for nearly a hundred years before other nations took an interest in explorations and settlements. In 1565, St. Augustine in Florida, the oldest town in the United States, was settled by the Span-

iards. Twelve years later Santa Fé in the far West was settled by them.

The French in Canada.—In the meantime the French had made some explorations along the St. Lawrence River, and into Canada. In 1608 Quebec was founded by Samuel de Champlain. This established the French in the northern part of America. Gradually their influence spread along the Canada line until the French language and customs became as pronounced in Canada as was the Spanish influence in the southern part of America. To the present day French is spoken by many of the Canadians, though it has long been an English possession.

26. THE PROTESTANT REFORMATION

Leaving Spain and France to pursue their policy in the New World, let us return to affairs in Europe. We come to that period in history known as The Reformation. Its two great leaders were Martin Luther and John Calvin.

At that time in most of the countries of Europe there was but one Church, the Roman Catholic Church, of which the Pope at Rome was the head. As head of the Church he claimed authority over rulers and kings and imposed taxes for Church purposes in all the Christian countries of Europe.

Abuses within the Church.—Many abuses arose within the Church, which all good Christians saw with distress and alarm. One of these abuses was

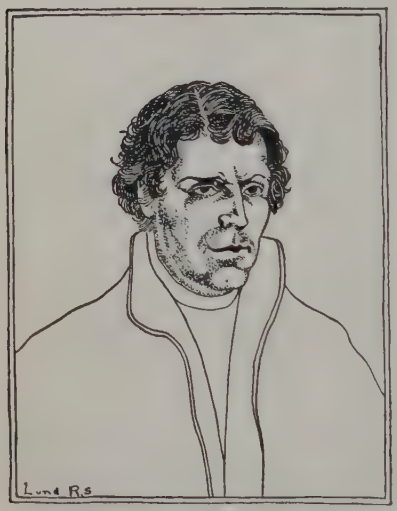
the sale of indulgences. By this was meant that by a gift of money to the Church any sinner who had truly repented and atoned for his sins could have his punishment in purgatory remitted by the Church. It had become customary to sell these letters of indulgences from the Pope in large quantities as a source of revenue for the Church.

The sale of indulgences.—Many of those who bought them could not read them, for the indulgences were all printed in Latin and many of the ignorant and superstitious took them to mean that they had unconditional pardon for any sin they had committed or might at any time commit, which was not what the Church meant at all. But there were some unscrupulous peddlers who sold those letters to the people everywhere and encouraged them in their errors. There were other abuses as well, all of which brought distress and alarm to the good men of the Church who tried in vain to reform them. There were others more impetuous who determined to break away from the Church and set up a creed and church of their own, independent of any control of Rome and the Pope.

The revolt against the abuses.—The revolt began in Germany, where the people were poor, heavily taxed, and were ill-disposed to buy indulgences at heavy cost, and to see their hard-earned money go to Italy to swell the coffers of the Pope. The people paid, but they complained bitterly as they did so.

They only needed a leader to make them rebel against the abuses of the Church, which they had borne patiently for many years.

Martin Luther.—A leader appeared. He was Martin Luther, son of a peasant. He was a man of straightforward manners and fearless zeal. He was educated to be a lawyer, but becoming intensely religious he joined an order of friars and began preaching with fiery eloquence a purer and better practice of religion. When he was thirty-four years of age he began his struggle with Rome, which ended in the Reformation and the beginning of the Protestant churches in Europe.



Martin Luther, who at the age of 34 years began his struggle with the Roman Church, which ended in the Reformation and the establishment of Protestantism.

John Tetzel at Wittenberg.—Luther's revolt began with his protest against the sale of indulgences. The Pope needed money to build the great cathedral at Rome, known as St. Peter's. He licensed a friar, of the name of John Tetzel, as one who could sell indulgences in order to raise the money. The people began to buy them and there were those who

thought all their sins were pardoned. Tetzel appeared in Wittenberg, where Luther was teaching theology in the University, and began the sale of these letters from the Pope, making many misstatements about their meaning.

Martin Luther's protest.—Luther rose in protest against the abuse of this practice. On Sunday, October 31, 1517, he nailed to the door of the church in Wittenberg, which was used as a kind of bulletin board for the students of the University, a paper written in Latin, containing ninety-five "theses" or statements, and challenged any one to debate them with him. He did not at that time intend to defy the Pope, or leave the Church, or start a reformation, but nevertheless that act was the beginning of the great movement. No one took up the challenge. But the printing presses scattered copies of Luther's statements broadcast, and in a few weeks the reforms within the Church for which the young and brave friar had argued were discussed in every household in Germany. Luther had started the Reformation.

He now began to study the Bible more closely. In 1519 he denied the authority of the Pope even in spiritual matters and declared that men should follow the words of the Bible as they understood them and not as the Pope understood them. In this way did the young monk declare war upon the Church.

Luther defies the Pope.—The Pope wrote a letter of excommunication, barring Luther from the

Martin Luther burns the Pope's letters before the town gate, the students cheering him as he denounces the Roman Church.

Church and all privileges of citizenship anywhere. He ordered all his books to be burned, and threatened all his followers with punishment. Luther was not dismayed. He burned the Pope's letter in a bonfire with other writings of the Church, before the town gate in 1520, the students and the people bringing fuel and cheering him as he set fire to the documents. The Pope appealed to the emperor of Germany, Charles V, to punish the heretic. The Emperor summoned Luther to appear before the diet or assembly at Worms and answer the charges. His friends begged him not to go, but he replied, "I will go if there were as many devils in Worms as there are tiles on the housetops."

The Lutheran or Protestant Church.—He went as he said he would, and the diet condemned him to death and ordered his books to be burned. But he was rescued by Frederick of Saxony and carried away to a hiding place. Here he translated the Bible into German and wrote more books. The people began gradually to accept his teachings. In 1522 he left his retreat and began to preach again. By 1530 the Lutheran Church was firmly established in the northern part of Germany. Its members were called Protestants because they protested against the authority of the Pope and the practices of the Church.

John Calvin and the Presbyterian Church.—While the Lutheran Church was growing in Germany, an-

other form of Protestantism was started in Switzerland, of which John Calvin was the main leader. He was a young French scholar of a stern and severe mind, and was the founder of the Puritan doctrine and the Presbyterian Church. He lived at Geneva, where he worked out his whole system of church government and doctrine. His discipline was severe, harshly forbidding all amusements like dancing and severely punishing all those guilty of drunkenness, swearing, and gaming. Men were forced to go to church and were not allowed any luxuries in dress. Under his order Geneva became a sober and industrious community and later his doctrines largely influenced the founding of a Puritan colony in America, on the shores of Massachusetts Bay.

John Calvin, at Geneva, Switzerland, founded the Puritan doctrine and the Presbyterian Church.

The Church of England.—When Henry VIII was king of England, he desired a divorce from his wife, Catherine of Aragon, in order to marry Anne Boleyn, a lady of his court. The Pope declined to grant the divorce, which so angered the king that he appealed

to his own courts and secured his divorce, whether the Pope agreed to it or not.

In 1534 the English Parliament declared the king to be the supreme head of the Church of England, and that he should enjoy all the powers which the title carried with it. The clergy and the people were forbidden to make any further payments to the Pope. In this way the Church of England was established.

Henry VIII, during whose reign the Church of England was established.

Henry proceeded next to enrich himself by the ruin of the monasteries and the confiscation of all their lands to the crown. He also enriched thousands of his friends by grants and gifts of property that had belonged to the Church, and destroyed many noble monasteries that were homes of monks and nuns. The remains of these ancient abbey churches are among the picturesque ruins of England of the present day.

The spread of Protestantism.—Protestantism thus spread to England, and out of it grew the Episcopal Church everywhere. The Lutheran Church held

large parts of Germany and some countries to the north. The Presbyterian Church was making progress in Switzerland. Spain, Italy, France, Belgium and the lower part of Germany adhered to Catholicism. And so those nations very largely remain.

27. QUEEN ELIZABETH

When Henry VIII, king of England, died, he was succeeded by his son, who became Edward VI. He was nine years old at the time and died when he was fifteen. The government was in the hands of Protestant lords who carried the new order forward with great vigor. It was during his brief reign that the English Prayer Book was put into its present form.

The reign of Mary.—When Edward died he was succeeded by his half-sister Mary, who was a most earnest Catholic. She tried to undo all that the Protestants had done before her reign, and to put down the new Church by violent persecution. Catholics had been executed in previous reigns and now Mary retaliated in greater measure. It was estimated that during her reign nearly three hundred Protestants were burned at the stake. So many martyrs were burned, and so much terror was spread over the country, that she is known in history as Bloody Mary. She died after five years of tyranny and misrule, and was succeeded in 1558 by her half-sister, Elizabeth, then twenty-five years old.

Queen Elizabeth.—Elizabeth was one of the greatest queens in history. From her father she inherited a strong mind, a vigorous body, a determined will, and much courage. From her mother, Anne Boleyn, she inherited a love of finery and flattery, combined with vanity and a fondness for display. She was one of the best educated women of her day, speaking several languages, and well acquainted with Latin and Greek.

Elizabeth, queen of England, during whose notable reign from 1558 to 1603, the kingdom grew in power and prosperity.

Her character and habits.—She was a shrewd judge of men and affairs, and kept around her the wisest and best advisers of her kingdom. Her temper was high at times and her will was imperious. Sometimes she would berate her counsellors roundly, but she never lost her good sense and never drove away those who in her cooler moments she knew advised her for the country's good. She was at all times the controlling spirit of her court, and kept the reins in her own hands. She was very thrifty in her own expenses and economical in the expendi-

ture of her government's money. She loved England intensely and during her long reign of forty-five years she could truly declare that she had no purpose that was not for the advantage and welfare of England.

Elizabeth completes the establishment of the English Church.—Elizabeth favored the Protestants. She removed the most bigoted of Mary's bishops and put Protestant bishops in their places. The Book of Common Prayer was revised, and the English Church was firmly established. In 1559 Parliament passed two great acts, the Act of Supremacy, which declared the queen to be the supreme head of the Church, and the Act of Uniformity, which regulated the forms of worship. All the clergy had to take an oath acknowledging the queen's supremacy, or lose their office. Nearly all the bishops and many of the lesser clergy took the oath. Those who did not lost their offices.

The policy of Elizabeth.—At that time England was a thinly-populated country and a second-rate power. It was inferior in wealth to France, Germany, or Spain. Its life was largely agricultural, and much of its commerce was controlled by foreign merchants. Elizabeth set about to improve the conditions. Under her leadership and direction a new system of coinage was introduced, so that money became better and more plentiful. Prices improved and merchants began to grow rich.

While other countries were engaged in war, Elizabeth kept her country at peace so long as she could. It was said by her chief adviser that "war is a curse and peace a blessing upon a nation. The realm will gain more in one year of peace than in ten years of war." And so it proved.

She encouraged skilled workmen from other countries to come to England. Protestants driven from France and Flanders were welcomed to England to set up the handicrafts in which they excelled. Manufacturing flourished, commerce improved, ship-building was undertaken and the foundations were laid of that great navy that has ever since been the pride and strength of the English people.

All the time Elizabeth was building up England, Spain was continuing its explorations in America. Upon the voyages of John Cabot England itself claimed a part of the mainland, though no efforts had been made to found a colony there. England had not yet succeeded in founding a colony in America and for a time gave up all efforts in that direction. In the meantime her seamen were becoming more and more daring in their voyages. English sailors crossed the Atlantic, robbed the Spanish ships, and plundered the Spanish seaport towns. It was a warfare of pirate ships that took everything they found.

Philip, king of Spain, protested and threatened, and ordered every Englishman caught in Spanish-

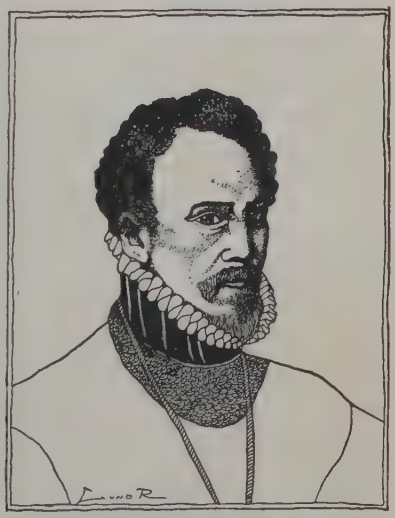
American waters to be hanged. But this only whetted the appetites of the daring navigators and they continued to plunder the "gold ships" of Spain.

John Hawkins.—One of the noted leaders was John Hawkins, who was the founder of the English slave trade. He had a large business in procuring negroes from the coast of Africa and selling them to the Spanish colonies. The Spaniards were glad to get the negroes and did not molest Hawkins in his coming and going.

Sir John Hawkins of Plymouth, England, was the founder of the English slave trade of negroes from the coast of Africa to the Spanish colonies in America.

Francis Drake.—Another freebooter of the seas was Francis Drake. He crossed the Atlantic, went through the Straits of Magellan, sailed up the west coast, and raised the English flag somewhere on the coast of the present state of California. He gathered an enormous amount of plunder, gold, silver, and precious stones, captured from Spanish ships and sea-coast towns. He then sailed across the Pacific and finally returned to England. He was the first Englishman to sail around the world, 1577-1579.

His ship was named the *Golden Hind*. When he came back to England, loaded with the rich spoils of Spanish ships and towns and full of the daring adventures of his long voyage, Queen Elizabeth was so delighted that she went on board his vessel with the lords of her court and conferred upon him the honor of knighthood. Henceforward he was Sir Francis Drake.



Sir Francis Drake, the first Englishman to sail around the world.

28. THE RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC

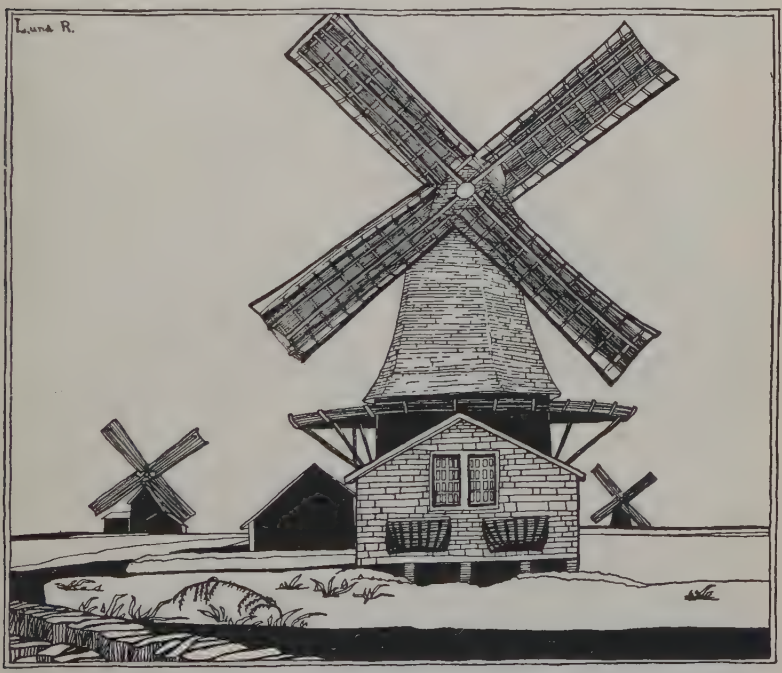
The Netherlands. — Let us leave England for the present in order to see how the brave people of the Netherlands were fighting to become free of Spanish rule. The Netherlands or the Low Countries are so called because all the land is low and flat and much of it lies below the level of the sea. The ocean is kept out by dikes or levees which the industrious people built at great expense and through many years in order to reclaim the land. The Netherlands comprised that portion of the country now occupied by Holland and Belgium.

The dikes.—The dikes had to be watched with great care. A little leak in any portion would soon grow into a great opening and the sea would rush in and overwhelm the villages, drown the inhabitants, and destroy all their prosperity. Nothing was more dreaded by the Dutch, as they were called, than a leak in the dike.

The industries.—The soil was rich and crops grew abundantly. In the part that is now Holland the people became prosperous farmers, raising large herds of cattle and devoting themselves to dairying and agriculture. In the part that is now Belgium or Flanders the people became weavers of fine cloth and experts in many small industries.

Canals and windmills.—The people were seafaring. The ocean was before them and the land was intersected with canals. Boats plied through the country and into the towns, towed by horses or by men along the canal banks, taking the place of wagons and roads in other countries. The canals were the highways of the Netherlands and boats bore the burden of traffic. In order to supply power for the grinding of grain the people built windmills. Being near the sea the wind was constantly blowing. There were no mountain streams whose falls could supply water power, and the people had to depend on wind power. Even to the present day one sees windmills in Holland, and the canals still bear the traffic through the country and into the towns.

The glory of Spain.—The Netherlands at this time were a possession of Spain. Philip II, who became king of Spain in 1556, was the most powerful ruler in Europe. Spain was in her glory. Her soldiers



The windmills supplied the power for the people of Holland to grind their grain.

were the finest and her ships were the best in the world. Every year the "gold fleet" brought great quantities of gold, silver, and other treasures from the mines and forests of America to swell the coffers of this rich and prosperous nation. Philip was a

crafty and cautious ruler, who worked hard day after day in a room no better than that used by one of his clerks. He was cruel, despotic, and unscrupulous, and was ardently devoted to the Roman Catholic Church.

Philip paid but little attention to his Dutch subjects except to get money out of them and to force them to become Catholics. Spanish officers were sent into the Netherlands, Spanish troops were quartered upon the people, living in their houses and devouring their products. Heavy taxes were imposed upon the people and collected in a heartless manner. Worse than all, Philip tried to stamp out Protestantism in the Netherlands by cruel persecutions. He established a court of Inquisition whose duty it was to examine and punish heretics, as those who were not Catholics were called. It was a time of misguided religious frenzy, in which a brave and patient people suffered untold hardships.

Finally the people protested. Protestants and Catholics alike appealed vigorously for reform in government and for relief from taxation and persecution. Philip angrily responded by sending the Duke of Alva, a stern Spanish general, into the Netherlands, with a Spanish army to put down what he chose to consider a rebellion.

Alva was a cruel and relentless leader. His council is known as the Council of Blood. That council declared the whole population guilty of rebellion and

deserving of death with a confiscation of all their property. The duke proceeded to carry out the orders of his master and thousands were put to death. The rich and the poor, Protestants and Catholics, suffered alike. The duke was there to enforce the rule of Spain and to make the people pay and submit.

The revolt of the Netherlands.—In 1568 the revolt of the Netherlands against Spain began again in earnest. It lasted forty years. At first the struggle was mainly for political reforms, but it soon became a struggle for religious liberty as well. During all these years the war was waged with a relentless fury that is hard for us of the present day to understand. Town after town was captured and given over to plunder and destruction without mercy or remorse.

William of Orange, also called William the Silent, was the great leader of the Dutch in their revolt against Spain.

William the Silent.—The hero of this war was William, Prince of Orange. He was a rich nobleman, brave and patriotic, in whom the people placed great confidence. He had very little to say and kept secret his plans and purposes. From his habit of

using few words and not unfolding his ideas too freely he is known as William the Silent. From his energy, courage, and persistence he is known as the Dutch Washington. Had it not been for his patient and confident leadership, his ability to avoid complete defeat to his armies, his way of snatching victory out of the very extremity of disaster, there would have been no final success for the little nation that was waging war against the mightiest monarch of Europe.

The siege of Leyden.—The Spaniards had surrounded the beautiful city of Leyden and laid siege to it. For many months the people inside the city were shut up, until supplies became very scarce. Famine stared the people in the face. They ate rats, cats, dogs, and even then many died of starvation. The population was gaunt from hunger and weak with the fatigue of the long siege. At one time they threatened to open the gates and let the Spaniards in, but the brave burgomaster, who was like the mayor of our cities, stormed at them and told them they might kill him and eat his body, but that the gates of Leyden would never be opened to the Spanish butchers.

Cutting the dikes to relieve Leyden.—Leyden was fifteen miles from the ocean. Out there lay a Dutch fleet with men and supplies. The country between was flat and below the level of the sea, which was held back by the great dikes. William saw plainly

The brave people of Holland open the dikes and let the sea in over their land, rather than surrender it to the Spaniards.

that Leyden was lost unless the fleet could be brought to its gates. He ordered the dikes to be cut. The ocean came in with a great onward rush, overwhelming farms and houses, but bearing the Dutch ships to the besieged city. The prosperity of years was swept away, but the people would rather for the ocean to have Holland than for the Spaniards to have it. The Spanish camp was swept away, many were drowned, the others fled in terror. The relieving ships rode the waves up to the city itself, and Leyden was safe. The cutting of the dikes, the flooding of the land, the relief of Leyden, made the turning point of the war. From this time on Dutch liberty was assured.

The University of Leyden.—On account of their heroic resistance William offered the people of Leyden their choice between exemption from taxes and a great university. The citizens chose a university, saying they could afford to pay taxes better than they could afford to do without learning. The University of Leyden has since become one of the great universities of Europe. It commemorates the resistance of a heroic city to oppression, and the purpose of a wise people for enlightenment.

Philip realized that William was the soul of the Dutch revolt and that so long as he lived the revolt would continue. Philip therefore offered a large sum of money and a title of nobility to anyone who would kill the Dutch leader. Several attempts were

made without success. At last one fanatic reached his house in Delft and shot him, in 1584. The patriot died praying for the Lord to have pity upon his poor and suffering people.

In spite of this great loss the war continued. England had already taken a part in it, and secretly had sent money and at length openly sent an army to aid the Dutch. This was the signal for Spain to declare war on England and send a great fleet to attack that country, as we shall see later on.

Belgium and Holland.—After several years the southern provinces gave up the struggle and returned to Spanish allegiance. The people were largely French in descent and Roman Catholic in religion. They became known as the Spanish Netherlands, and now comprise modern Belgium. The northern provinces continued the war for many years and finally won their independence as the Dutch Republic. Those colonies were Protestant in religion and now are known as Holland.

The prosperity of Holland.—The wonderful part of the long war was that Holland did not suffer in wealth by the struggle. She drew her strength from the sea, and during the war her vessels plundered the Spanish ships on all waters. Her people were born sailors and her ships were carrying the rich trade of Asia to all European ports. In 1609, the year that Spain made peace with Holland, a Dutch vessel named the *Half Moon* commanded by Henry

Hudson, sailed up the river in America that bears his name, and made the beginning of a Dutch colony in the New Netherlands as they were called, which

Henry Hudson, sailing under a Dutch flag, explores the Hudson River in 1609.

later became New York. Many of the old families of New York date their beginning from the Dutch families that settled on Manhattan Island.

29. THE ELIZABETHAN AGE

Spanish grievance against England.—Philip II, king of Spain, had several causes for grievance against England. England was Protestant, Spain was Roman Catholic. England sided with the Dutch in their rebellion against Spanish rule. To crown all, Philip was maddened by the rise of English power, her aggressiveness on the seas, and her piracy in Spanish waters. England was looming large as a world power. Philip determined upon revenge and began to make preparations to crush the rival that threatened to overthrow his sway.

Drake attacks Cadiz.—To make matters worse Sir Francis Drake in the spring of 1587 sailed boldly into the harbor of Cadiz and inflicted damage upon Spanish vessels to an enormous amount. Philip was enraged at this insolence and the English government was alarmed, for the queen was anxious to avoid an open war with Spain. But the people themselves were delighted, especially when Drake declared he was only "singeing the Spanish king's beard."

The Invincible Armada.—Philip hastened preparations for a great fleet to attack England. He was resolved in one great effort to settle the question of supremacy in Europe. Should it be Spanish or English? The result meant a great deal to the history of the world, especially to America, where Spain already held large possessions. At last in 1588 the

vessels set sail for the shores of England. The fleet was known as the Invincible Armada. It consisted of one hundred and thirty-two vessels, large and small, carrying nineteen thousand warriors and eight thousand sailors. But the Spanish ships were unwieldy, badly equipped and provisioned, and commanded by an incompetent admiral.

Confronting this formidable array were the smaller ships of the English, fewer in number, but manned by experienced seamen and led by Drake, Hawkins, Howard, Frobisher, and others, all of whom were heroes in many sea fights. The Spanish fleet sailed up the channel bravely, but were beset on all sides by the smaller English ships. It was like a large and ponderous animal goaded by hornets. The Armada was becalmed at Dunkirk. The English admiral sent fire ships drifting among the Spanish vessels which threw them into great confusion. In the fight which ensued the Spanish fleet was badly damaged, many vessels being sunk or falling into the hands of the English.

The destruction of the Armada.—The Spanish commander resolved to abandon the enterprise and get home the best way he could. He sailed northward, hoping to carry his fleet around Scotland and escape his pursuers. His hopes were in vain. A hurricane broke in great fury upon his distressed ships and scattered them in all directions. Some went down on the cliffs of Norway, some in the open

sea, and some went to pieces on the coast of Scotland. An English officer reported that he counted a thousand Spanish corpses on the coast of Scotland in the space of five miles. About fifty vessels of all the proud Armada were all that reached home.

England the mistress of the seas.—Spain never recovered from the blow. She sank into a second-rate power, no longer dreaded in Europe or in America. England became mistress of the seas, which position she has maintained ever since. The victory united the nation into one people. Catholics and Protestants had fought side by side against a common foe. The sailors and soldiers of England had proved their ability, and were proud of their country. From now on England arose, rich and prosperous, taking rank as one of the leading powers of the world. The way was open for England to colonize America, without dread of serious opposition from Spain.

The rise of the Puritans.—England was now a Protestant kingdom and her Church was a Protestant Church. There were those in the Church, however, who did not like the moderation of Queen Elizabeth in the matter of forms and ceremonies and who wished that every vestige of the Roman Catholic Church should be removed.

These people had submitted to John Calvin at Geneva the question of using the Prayer Book of Edward VI. He declared that the book lacked the

Ships of the sixteenth century.

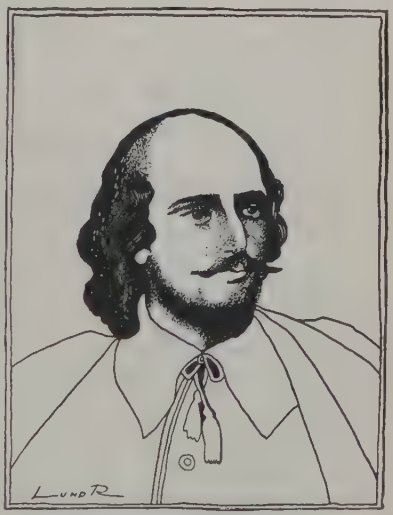
purity that it should have, and advised against it. This gave rise to the sect of the Puritans, who were very determined to purify the Church of any semblance of Catholicism. Aside from the austerity of their lives of which we have already spoken, the Puritans opposed the use of those vestments and ceremonies which savored of the Roman practice. They wished to abandon the cap and surplice of the minister, the use of the sign of the cross, and of the ring in marriage, and of kneeling while receiving the sacrament.

The Pilgrims.—There was a reaction against these Nonconformists, as they were called. An act of Parliament declared them seditious and disloyal and required them to conform to the ritual of the English Church and threatened persecution if they declined. Many were exiled and all were silenced. One congregation was so much dissatisfied with the requirements of Parliament and the rulers of the English Church that the members fled from England in 1608, going first to Holland and then to America. They were called Pilgrims on account of their wanderings. It was this sect that founded the Plymouth Colony in Massachusetts Bay in 1620.

The Elizabethan Age.—The years during which Elizabeth was queen of England are known as the Elizabethan Age. It was a glorious age in the history of that country. The population increased in numbers and in prosperity. English ships were built

EUROPE
IN THE TIME OF
ELIZABETH
RUSSIA
Moscow
Novgorod
KHANATE OF CRIMEA
CRIMEA
Black Sea
Constantinople
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
SWEDEN
KINGDOMS OF NORWAY AND DENMARK
North Sea
TEUTONIC KNIGHTS
GRAND DUCHY OF LITHUANIA
KINGDOM OF POLAND
Warsaw
Prussia
MOLDAVIA
WALLACHIA
TRANSYLVANIA
BULGARIA
SERVIA
BOSNIA
HUNGARY
GREECE
AEGEAN SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ALGIERS
KINGDOM OF SCOTLAND
Edinburgh
KINGDOM OF ENGLAND
London
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Paris
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
Avignon
PETTY GERMAN STATES
Cologne
Strasburg
Strasund
BRANDENBURG
SAXONY
Breslau
SILESIA
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
HUNGARY
AUSTRIA
ROMAN EMPIRE
BAVARIA
STYRIA
TYROL
SWISS CONFED.
SAVOY
MILAN
Venice
REP. OF VENICE
ADRIATIC SEA
PAPAL STATES
Rome
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
Naples
KINGDOM OF SICILY
Genoa
Pisa
CORSICA
KINGDOM OF SARDINIA
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
Madrid
Cadiz
Gibraltar
KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL
Lisbon

and were sent sailing on every sea. Trade with the East developed rapidly and English sailors tried to discover a northwest passage through the American continent to China. Frobisher in 1576 and Davis in 1583 sailed into the frozen regions of the New World, seeking for a passage through that unknown and unexplored country. English fishermen were active off the banks of Newfoundland and their whaling vessels were busy off the coast of Greenland.



William Shakespeare, the great dramatist, who lived in the Elizabethan Era of English history.

As agriculture, commerce, and industry improved so did living conditions. Some of the farmers' houses had chimneys and window glass. Carpets began to take the place of reeds and rushes for the floor. Pewter knives and spoons came into use, though forks were not introduced until later. People began to wear better clothes, build better houses, and to send their children to school. There were still many poor people in the kingdom, and much hardship imposed by some landlords. But generally the condition of the poor was improving.

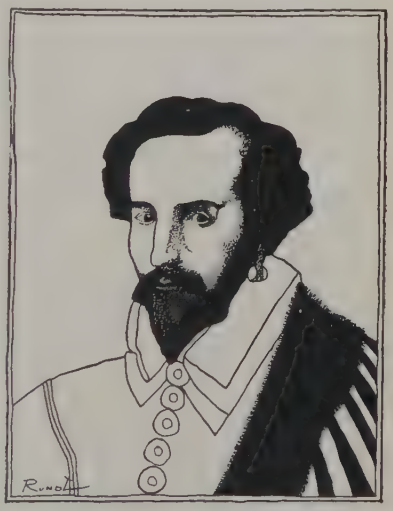
The new national feeling found expression in poetry, prose, and the drama. The age was rich in authors. Schools had spread a knowledge of reading among the people and a thirst for literary pleasures. The age was made great by such writers as Edmund Spenser, Francis Bacon, and William Shakespeare. The Elizabethan literature is a part of the Elizabethan Age and helped to establish a national pride, self-esteem, and independence.

30. SIR WALTER RALEIGH

Raleigh and his cloak.—Among the notable men of the days of Elizabeth was Sir Walter Raleigh. He was a gallant young man of England, bold, fond of adventure, and an admirable courtier. The story goes that one day, before he was known to the queen, when she was walking in the royal grounds attended by her court, the party came to a muddy place in the path before the queen herself. As the royal lady hesitated a moment, a young man stepped forward from among the bystanders and threw his cloak over the muddy place so that the queen might pass without soiling her shoes. When she had crossed she called the young man to her side and offered to pay for the cloak or buy him another one. "The only pay I wish, your Majesty, is your permission to keep the cloak, for since your Majesty's foot has touched it, it has become too precious for me to keep without your consent," was the gallant reply. The queen

was so pleased with the answer that she asked his name. "Walter Raleigh, most noble lady," said he.

Raleigh becomes a courtier.—The next day Elizabeth sent for him and made him one of the guards in the royal household. He soon became a great favorite with the queen, who enriched him with many presents of lands and money. He was one of the most brilliant and successful of all the members of the court. He had many suits of velvet and satin cloth, he wore a hat with a band of pearls, and the diamonds in his shoe-buckles were worth several thousand dollars. He was tall and handsome, with curly hair and blue eyes, and amused the queen with stories of his many adventures as a soldier in the Netherlands and in Ireland.



Sir Walter Raleigh, courtier, soldier and founder of colonies, who gave the name Virginia to a large territory in America.

But Raleigh was something more than a courtier. Being a good business man he had acquired a fortune, which he spent in erecting houses, laying out estates, and building ships. Being a soldier and a sailor he was not content with the idle life of a court,

but desired to do something in the world that was worth while.

Proposes a colony in America.—There was much talk of America and the Spanish colonies, and of the vast riches of the New World. England claimed the mainland of North America through the voyages of John Cabot, but had made no effort to found colonies there. Only the Spaniards had been settling in these rich lands. Now that Spain was no longer to be dreaded, England determined to assert the rights she claimed and begin to colonize. Raleigh proposed to the queen to fit out ships and send a colony to America. The queen was as thrifty as Raleigh was adventurous. She told him he might do so gladly, but that he would have to pay for the ships himself, and might found a colony anywhere he chose.

Naming of Virginia.—He fitted out two ships, and collecting a lot of poor people who were willing to go anywhere, he sent them across the ocean to begin a colony in America. After a four months' voyage they came to the coast of North Carolina. Here they took a look at the land, caught sight of a few Indians, and sailed back home. They reported to Raleigh that the land was very beautiful, but they would rather live in England. Raleigh named the land Virginia, all the way from Canada to Florida, in honor of Elizabeth, the virgin queen.

In 1585 Raleigh sent out other colonists, who

landed on Roanoke Island. They were a lazy and idle lot and spent their time looking for gold and silver, rather than in raising corn and vegetables. They would have starved to death if Francis Drake, who had been fighting the Spaniards in the West Indies, had not come along and taken them home. The second effort was a failure.

The use of tobacco.—These colonists brought back some useful information about the products of the new country. Among other things was tobacco, which they told Raleigh the Indians burned in their pipes and drew the smoke into their mouths. Raleigh liked the idea, and soon learned to smoke like the Indians. In his room one day he was smoking, blowing the smoke into the air. A servant came in with a pot of ale. Thinking his master on fire, the servant threw the ale in Raleigh's face, much to his amusement and chagrin.

The lost colony of Roanoke.—Raleigh tried a third time to found a colony on Roanoke Island. He sent farmers, mechanics, and carpenters, with their wives and children. Houses were built, gardens were planted, and friends were made of the Indians. All was going well, and John White who was in charge of the colony went back to England to get more colonists and more supplies. When he reached England he found that country in great excitement over the threatened Spanish invasion. The Armada was about to sail and even Raleigh had no time nor

money for a colony in America. It was nearly three years before John White could get a ship to take him back to America. When he came to Roanoke Island not a sight of the colonists could be found. There was nothing left but empty houses. The colonists had disappeared and to this day no one knows what became of them.

Raleigh gave up all his plans for colonization in America. He had spent large sums of money to no purpose. Then he married one of the queen's maids-of-honor without asking the queen. This so provoked Elizabeth that she put him in prison and kept him there for six months.

Visits South America.—Three years later he set out on a voyage to South America in search of gold. He had heard marvelous stories of a king of that country who rubbed himself with oil and then rolled over in the gold dust until he looked like a golden image. Raleigh sailed up the Orinoco River, but he never saw the king and never found any gold. When he came back he wrote a story of the expedition, giving a marvelous account of the people of the countries he had visited.

The last days of Raleigh.—Soon after his return to England Elizabeth died and James I became king of England. King James did not like Raleigh. Many enemies, jealous of his wealth and success, had poisoned the king's mind against the courtier. He was tried for treason, unjustly condemned, and

sent to a prison called the Tower of London, to await execution. Here he stayed for thirteen years, devoting his time to study and to writing a history of the world. At the end of that time he persuaded

The Tower of London, where Raleigh spent his last days, was commenced in Norman times, and was used as a prison and a palace. Around it centers much of the ancient history of England.

the king to let him go on an expedition to South America, telling the king he was sure to find vast treasures of gold and silver. The king consented and Raleigh sailed. But the expedition was another sad failure. On his return he was again thrown into prison and condemned and executed.

Death of Raleigh.—He met death like a brave man. He asked to be executed in the early morning hours, for he had a fever at the time and he knew that if he waited until evening a chill would come and he would shake, and that his enemies would think he was afraid. The request was

Raleigh in his old age fell into disfavor with king James I, and spent his last days in prison writing a history of the world.

granted. As he mounted the scaffold he touched the headman's axe, smilingly saying, "It is a sharp medicine, but it will cure all ills." He refused to be blindfolded, and as he knelt he gave the signal for the executioner to strike. The man hesitated out of pure admiration. Raleigh called out to him,

"Why do you delay, man? Strike. I am ready." The axe fell and the old courtier's troubles were at an end.

Raleigh was a great soldier, a wise counselor, a witty courtier, and a fine writer. It is to him that England owes the first movement toward making a great colonial empire in America. His efforts failed, but a few years afterwards others took up the work he had begun, and carried it on to success.

31. RELIGIOUS DISSENSIONS IN EUROPE

The religious wars in Europe lasted nearly a hundred years. We must not forget, however, that religious parties were also political parties and that often the struggle between those parties was a struggle to see which could get control of the government. Each country had its national religion, or state Church, something we do not have in America, and each division of the Church contended for mastery in political as well as in religious affairs.

Religious persecution in Europe.—It is a long and sad story of persecution, misguided zeal, cruelty, and hardship, in which many people were driven out of their own country or left it of their own will to find refuge elsewhere. We tell the story of those wars and of those persecutions because it was through religious intolerance and persecution in Europe that many colonists came to this country.

Nowadays there is no religious persecution any-

where. In nearly all lands all religions are tolerated, and men are free to attend any church they like, and worship in any manner they choose. It was not so in Europe for many years, as we shall see.

The Huguenots in France.—The Protestants in France who followed the doctrines of Calvin were called Huguenots. They constituted a large part of the entire population, and consisted mainly of the nobles and the noble class. They had two thousand places of worship and adhered to their faith in spite of persecution. The conflict between the Roman Catholic party and the Huguenots became a political as well as a religious war, lasting many years, during which France suffered untold hardship.

Henry IV and his reign.—When Henry of Navarre became king of France as Henry IV, he issued (1598) the Edict of Nantes, which gave the Huguenots equal political and religious rights with the Catholics. It gave them the right to reside anywhere in France without disturbance, and freedom to worship in their houses, and in certain public places. This edict brought peace to France. Henry was a true king of all the people, and knew no sects and no parties. He was wise, courageous, and generous, and became the most popular king France has ever had. He wrought many reforms in his kingdom. Roads and canals were built, new trades were encouraged, and industries were increased. He once said, "It is my wish that every peasant in the

kingdom shall have a fowl in his pot for his Sunday meal."

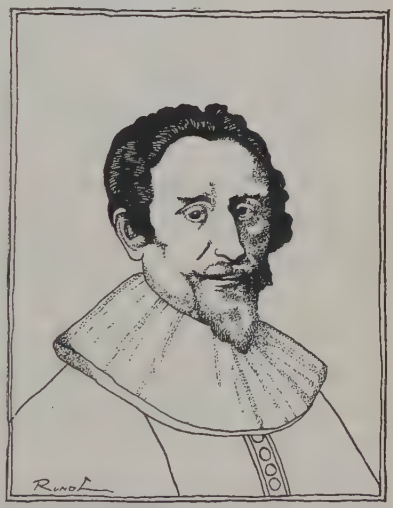
In spite of his popularity and wisdom Henry had his enemies. In 1610, as his carriage was passing through the streets of Paris, a religious fanatic leaped over the wheels and stabbed him to death.

The revocation of the Edict of Nantes.—The fact that Henry became a Catholic before he was crowned king put an end to the hopes of the Huguenots that France would become a Protestant country. It has remained Roman Catholic to this day, as Spain and Italy have done. The Huguenot religion, however, was tolerated, with occasional outbreaks and wars, until the reign of Louis XIV, in the year 1685, when the Edict of Nantes was revoked and the Huguenots were deprived of all religious and political rights. Protestantism disappeared from France, but the Huguenots disappeared also. We shall see more of the Huguenots when we study about Louis XIV.

Henry IV of France, who issued the famous Edict of Nantes, giving the Huguenots equal privileges with the Roman Catholics.

EUROPE
AT THE END OF
THIRTY YEARS' WAR
1648 A. D.
RUSSIA
Moscow
Revel
INGRIA
Stockholm
ESTHONIA
Swed.
LIVONIA
Riga
COURLAND
Konigsberg
EAST PRUSSIA
LITHUANIA
POLAND
Warsaw
VOLHYNIA
Kiev
Lemberg
PODOLIA
GALICIA
MOLDAVIA
Jassy
WALLACHIA
Bucharest
TRANSYLVANIA
HUNGARY
Budapest
Belgrade
BOSNIA
MONTENEGRO
Adrianople
Constantinople
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
BLACK SEA
Smyrna
RHODES
CYPRUS
CRETE
Salonica
GREECE
MOREA
AEGEAN SEA
Christiania
SWEDEN
Gothenburg
Copenhagen
DENMARK
Stockholm
Edinburgh
SCOTLAND
Belfast
IRELAND
Dublin
Cork
ENGLAND
Oxford
Bristol
London
WALES
NORTH SEA
Amsterdam
Bremen
MECKLENBERG
HANOVER
BRANDENBERG
Berlin
Hanover
Antwerp
NETHERLDS.
Cologne
SAXON SAXONY
STATES
HESSE
Frankfort
Prague
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
Posen
SILESIA
Cracow
Havre
Rheims
Paris
Metz
Brest
LeMans
Nantes
Strasburg
LORRE
Munich
BAVARIA
AUSTRIA
Vienna
STYRIA
SWITZERLD.
TYROL
CARINTHIA
Milan
VENICE
Venice
SAVOY
Parma
Genoa
Florence
TUSCANY
PAPAL
STATES
Rome
KINGDOM OF TWO SICILIES
Naples
Palermo
SICILY
Spain
ADRIATIC SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
FRANCE
Lyons
Bordeaux
Toulouse
Marseilles
CORSICA
Genoa
SARDINIA
Sp.
Barcelona
BALEARIC ISLES
Saragossa
Madrid
SPAIN
Cordova
Seville
Granada
Cadiz
PORTUGAL
Lisbon
MEDITERRANEAN SEA

The Thirty Years' War.—In the meantime the Thirty Years' War had been fought in Germany, the most terrible and destructive war in all history except the World War. It began in 1618 and lasted until peace was made in Westphalia in 1648. It was a war between the reigning Catholic house and the Protestant leaders that ultimately involved Denmark and Sweden. Even France came in on the Protestant side in order to humble the Catholic rulers in Germany and to gain more territory.



Hugo Grotius, a Dutch jurist, who laid the foundations of international law.

During the war Germany lost two-thirds of the population, hundreds of towns were wiped out entirely, and agriculture nearly disappeared. The war closed by a peace which settled the religious question by putting all the parties on the same footing, and giving equal rights and privileges to all. Since that time (1648) the idea that religious questions could be settled by force of arms has passed from the minds of men.

Hugo Grotius.—The cruelty displayed in those long and bloody wars by both sides impressed think-

ing men with the need of some rules to protect those who were noncombatants, to care for prisoners and the wounded, and to avoid ruthless robbery and massacre. In 1625 a Dutch jurist named Hugo Grotius published a book on the *Laws of War and Peace,* in which he laid the foundations of international law. The need of such a book was great. It was received everywhere with applause.

International law.—Since that time international law has become a science. Many nations have agreed to refer their disputes to certain courts, to avoid war whenever possible, to strive for peaceable settlement of their difficulties, and if war must be to make its suffering as light as possible. It is in the minds of men nowadays to preserve peace among the nations of the world by international agreements, treaties, and regulations that will make wars unlikely, and at all events to reduce their horrors as much as possible.

TOPICS FOR REVIEW

The period of the Renaissance.—The period of the Renaissance. What occurred during that period. The revival of learning in Italy. Increasing interest in the East; what the East supplied to Europe. The three routes of travel; the dangers and hardships of the travel. The Turks threaten the caravans and merchants. An all-sea way to India. The efforts of Prince Henry of Portugal. Bartholomew Diaz. Vasco da Gama. General belief that the world was flat. Those who did not believe so. Tos-

canelli and his map of the world. Spain becomes a Christian country.

Discovering and exploring America.—Unknown continent. The voyages of the Norsemen; Leif Ericson; the Norse Sagas. The known world at the end of the Middle Ages. Christopher Columbus; his belief that the world was round. His application for aid; Ferdinand and Isabella. Voyages of John Cabot. The naming of America. The enterprise of Spain; Balboa; Magellan; Ponce de Leon; De Soto; Coronado; Pizarro; Cortes. Influence of Spain in America. The wealth of Spain. Products of America brought to Europe. St. Augustine; Santa Fé. The French in Canada.

The Protestant Reformation.—The Roman Catholic Church. The sale of indulgences. The revolt in Germany. Martin Luther; his character and preaching. John Tetzel appears in Wittenberg. Luther's protest. Luther excommunicated; defies the Pope. Luther at Worms. The Lutheran or Protestant Church. John Calvin at Geneva; his severe doctrines. The Presbyterian Church. Henry VIII; the Church of England founded. The suppression of the monasteries. The spread of Protestantism.

Queen Elizabeth.—The reign of Edward VI. The reign of Bloody Mary. Elizabeth; her inheritance; her learning; her disposition; her habits; her patriotism. The Act of Supremacy; the Act of Uniformity. Her policy of peace; her encouragement to industry. English sailors in American waters. John Hawkins and the slave trade. Francis Drake sails around the world.

The rise of the Dutch Republic.—The Netherlands; why so called. The dikes. The industries of the people. Canals and windmills. Philip II of Spain. His extortions and cruelties. The atrocities of the Duke of Alva. The revolt of the Netherlands. William of Orange; why called

the Silent; his other name. The siege of Leyden; how the city was saved. The people choose a university. Death of William of Orange. The establishment of Belgium and Holland. The prosperity of Holland. Henry Hudson in the New World.

The Elizabethan Age.—Grievances of Spain against England. Sir Francis Drake in the harbor of Cadiz. The Invincible Armada; its mishaps in the channel; its final overthrow and destruction. The result of the overthrow of the Armada. The rise of the Puritans; their purpose and desires. The Pilgrims. The Elizabethan Age. Growth of the nation; activity of explorers; improvement of conditions. Literature of the times.

Sir Walter Raleigh.—The story of the cloak. Raleigh as a courtier; his wealth; his appearance; his business ability. Proposes a colony in America. Naming of Virginia. The colony at Roanoke Island; the use of tobacco; Raleigh and his servant. The lost colony. Raleigh loses favor with Elizabeth; sent to South America. Again in prison; his writings; his execution; what England owes to Raleigh.

Religious dissensions in Europe.—Religious and political parties. Persecution in Europe and its effect upon American colonies. The Huguenots in France. Henry IV and the Edict of Nantes. His interest in his people; his fate. Louis XIV and the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. The Thirty Years' War. Grotius and the rise of international law.

SUBJECTS FOR DISCUSSION

Why was Italy a natural place for the revival of learning? Why did men seek an all-sea way to India? Why have the Turks always been a menace to Europe? Why

did the people believe the world was flat? The adventurous Norsemen. The persistence of Columbus. Upon whose voyage did England claim North America? How did it happen that America received its name? Spanish enterprise and greed. Spanish America; French America. Why did the Church need reforming? Why did Luther protest? Name the Protestant sects that arose during the Reformation. In what respect was Elizabeth a great queen? How did the people of Holland show their industry? Their sacrifice? Their courage? What might have been the effect upon America if the Invincible Armada had succeeded? Name some of the glories of the Elizabethan Age. For what traits of character is Sir Walter Raleigh famous? What effect had the religious dissensions in Europe on the colonies in America?

CHAPTER VI

MODERN TIMES

32. THE WORLD IN 1600

While the people in Europe were settling their political and religious differences by wars and the nations as we now know them were gradually taking their places, there was going on a great advancement in science and improvement in the conditions of living.

Copernicus and his theory.—Up to this time men had believed that the earth was the center of the universe and that the sun and stars revolved around it. In 1543 a Polish astronomer, named Copernicus, published a book in which he proved that the center of our solar system was the sun and that the earth and the other planets revolved around it. This was a new idea and like many new ideas was by no means a popular one at the time it was announced. It was as hard at first to make people believe that the earth moved and the sun stood still as it was to make them believe the earth was round.

We now know that the sun stands still and the earth moves around it in a vast orbit, as other planets of our solar system do. We also think that

the fixed stars may be other suns around which other planets may be revolving in other solar systems, and that there may be an indefinite number of such suns and systems in space which neither the eye nor any telescope that we can make can discover.

Galileo and his telescope.—In Italy an astronomer named Galileo discovered the laws of falling bodies and of the pendulum. He invented the thermometer for registering temperature and devised the first telescope. In 1610 Galileo used his telescope to prove the theory of Copernicus and boldly announced that the sun stood still and the world moved, and that Copernicus was right. Forced by fear of punishment to retract his statement, he whispered to a friend standing near him, "What I say and what they say does not change the fact. It is the sun that stands still and the world that moves."

Copernicus, a Polish astronomer, in 1543 proved that the earth moved around the sun.

Harvey discovers the circulation of the blood.—In England a physician named William Harvey dis-

Galileo, an Italian astronomer, is persecuted for defending the theory of Copernicus.

covered the circulation of the blood in the human body. Up to that time men did not know why the heart beats. Now we know that it is a pump, ceaselessly working to force the impure blood from all parts of the body through the lungs, where it is purified by the air we breathe. The heart also forces the purified blood back to all parts of the body, thereby keeping up the circulation from the body to the lungs, and from the lungs back to the body.

Francis Bacon and scientific research.—More important than all was a new way of finding out the truth about anything under investigation. For hundreds of years all scholars had tried to learn the truth by reading what the ancient authorities said. They did not try to find out the truth of anything, but tried only to find out what others in the ancient days had said about it. What reasoning they did was upon theories of their own without reference to the facts in the case. Of course this held the human mind bound and delayed progress in all the sciences.

Francis Bacon, an Englishman, explained to the world how men could increase their knowledge by research and experiment. Perhaps the ancient authorities were wrong in many matters; investigation on a large scale should correct old errors and bring out new truths. Experiments and observation and reasoning would enlarge man's mind and increase human knowledge. He therefore urged scientific research for the truth based upon experiment and the gather-

ing of many facts together. From these facts the real truth about anything could be discovered.

As a result of Francis Bacon's ideas and writings, societies were formed in many countries of Europe for the advancement of science and the discovery of the truth and to find out what was not known before. This method gave an immense stimulus to man's mind, the effect of which is still noticed at the present day in the research work done by many societies and in many laboratories.

Francis Bacon, an English philosopher, who taught the world how to find out the truth by research and experiment.

Skilled workmen welcomed to England.—The wars on the continent were having their effect upon the life of the people in England. Elizabeth gladly welcomed to her kingdom all the skilled workmen driven out of the United Netherlands by the Spanish wars, and out of France by the persecution of the Huguenots. These foreign workmen were shown special favors, were given special quarters in the English cities, and were encouraged to set up their industries and manufactures. England welcomed the exiles from the continent and

Elizabeth made no question of their faith. She wanted a hard-working population and was glad to give them shelter.

The woolen industry.—Sheep-raising had long been a favorite industry with the people of England. But the wool as a raw product had been sold in the Netherlands or in France to the weavers there. With the coming of the weavers to England, the wool was worked up at home and the finished product was sold abroad. English woolen goods became standard in the markets of the world and have remained so ever since. The work was carried on mostly by hand and in the house of the workman or his employer. There were no large factories or mills as nowadays. It was a house weaving, such as is done in many mountain homes in our country today.

Landlords and tenants.—We must not get the idea that the laboring class in England was altogether a happy and prosperous class. Far from it, for England was largely a landlord's country. Prices were high and wages were low. The favored landlords who had come into possession of large tracts of land were glad to get tenants, but they made as much profit out of them as possible. Oftentimes the tenants were turned off the land, or left it voluntarily, until there arose a numerous class of vagabonds or beggars, who became robbers and highwaymen. For any violation of the law those

beggars were ruthlessly punished. It was said that during the reign of Elizabeth, prosperous as it was, as many as seventy thousand of these vagabonds and robbers were hanged for petty crimes.

There was a great contrast between the homes of the rich landlords and those of the poor tenants. There were many beautiful mansions on large estates. Inside were rich tapestries, carved furniture, gold and silver dishes, many servants, and much food. The landlords were an idle and pleasure-loving lot, who hunted over the lands, collected their rents, levied special taxes, and cared little for the common people.

Condition of the cities.—The cities themselves were far from the attractive places we know today. The streets were narrow, unpaved, and unlighted. Sidewalks were not known. The guards who tried to keep the peace were not numerous enough to keep down fighting and to protect the unwary citizen who went forth unarmed or unguarded after dark. As for waterworks, sewerage, and the comforts of modern life, these were unknown in England, or anywhere in Europe, in 1600.

Condition of the poor.—The poor people generally lived in small villages, no more than a cluster of houses, near the manor house of the landlord. These were practically tenant houses with a few acres of land for farming purposes. The land was still owned by the large landlords, who rented it to the tenants.

The tenants were not bound to the soil as were the serfs of former times. They could move away if they chose. But they were generally poor and bore patiently with severe conditions. Even among the well-to-do tenants such things as feather beds, a pair of blankets, brass dishes, or a pair of tongs, were so valuable as to be handed down as heirlooms in the family.

The call of the New World.—The poor had hard lives. They had to begin work early and leave off

The poor of England used oxen and wooden plows for tilling the soil.

late. There is no wonder that they listened eagerly to stories of the great open country in America where land was cheap and abundant and men were no longer oppressed by greedy landlords and taxed by the church and made to worship in the way the king said they should. Even John Winthrop, himself a prosperous but kind-hearted landlord, declared that England seemed weary of many of her

inhabitants and cared less for men than she did for horses and oxen.

33. JAMES I AND THE AMERICAN COLONIES

When Elizabeth died in 1603 she was succeeded by James, son of Mary Stuart, queen of Scots. He was already king of Scotland, where he was called James VI, but being the first king of England by that name he is known in English history as James I.

James I, king of England, son of Mary Stuart, queen of Scots, during whose reign Jamestown, in Virginia, was settled, in 1607.

Character of James I. —He was nearly forty years of age, was awkward and clumsy, and no one could tell by looking at him that he was the son of the beautiful Mary. He was coarse in his ways, and not very clean in his dress or appearance. He wore thick padded clothes, for he lived in constant fear of being assassinated. He really was a learned man, for he had read a great deal, but he was so conceited and obstinate, and foolish with it all, that his learning did him no good.

The Scotch people were rejoiced when James

Stuart came to the throne of England. The English people were not so enthusiastic. It took James a month to come from Edinburgh to London. To show his arbitrary nature, while on the way he ordered a pickpocket to be hanged without trial, which was against the provisions of the Great Charter. He also knighted two hundred favorites before he reached London, and seven hundred more before he had been king three months.

The religious question.—The burning question of the day was still the religious one. The king's mother had been a Roman Catholic and that party hoped on his mother's account he would favor the Catholics. He himself had been reared very strictly by the Scotch Presbyterians, who were as severe in their ideas as the Puritans themselves, and so the Puritans hoped he would favor them. A thousand Puritan ministers brought him a petition asking that they might preach without wearing a surplice, marry couples without using a ring, and baptize children without making the sign of the cross. This seems very foolish to us these days, but it meant a great deal to the Puritans of that time.

James called the bishops of the Church of England together to discuss the matter with the Puritan ministers. It soon became evident that the Puritans did not wish to have any bishops in charge of their Church. "What, no bishops?" cried the astonished king. "No bishops will soon mean no king," and he

dismissed the assembly in a rage. He then declared that Catholics and Puritans alike should conform to all the rules of the Church of England or he would "harry them out of the land, or else do worse." From that time on it went ill with all Nonconformists in his kingdom.

King James Version of the Bible.—One outcome of this conference was a proposal by the leaders of the Puritan party for a new translation of the Bible. King James, who was something of a scholar, approved the idea and gathering forty-seven learned men together he set them to work upon the translation. All the old manuscripts were studied carefully, the former versions in various languages were considered, and a new Bible was arranged by books, chapters, and verses. This version was published in 1611 and is known as the King James Version, and sometimes as the Authorized Version. It is the Protestant Bible as we know it at the present day. The language is simple, dignified, appealing, and easily understood. No other book has had a greater influence upon the English language than the Authorized Version of the Bible.

The divine right of kings.—James's favorite idea was "the divine right of kings." He believed the king was God's anointed, that he was the source of law and could not be controlled by any law that he did not make himself. Indeed he wrote a tiresome book on the subject, and declared it on all

occasions and practised it whenever he could. He paid little heed to the rights of his subjects. If he did not like the men who were elected to Parliament he would not let them serve. If the records of Parliament displeased him he tore the pages out and stamped on them with his foot. If important papers had to be signed he told the ministers to wait until he could go hunting or came back from some gathering of his personal friends. Indeed, James was a despot on principle. He said to Parliament, "It is presumption and high contempt in a subject to question what the king can do."

James was always in need of money to pay for his extravagances, and for his gifts to his favorites. He was a spendthrift and that sort is always in trouble. Kings are no exception to the rule. How to get money and more money was always the question with him. There was no way to get it except by applying to Parliament or by using unlawful means to borrow it or by levying unlawful taxes.

Conflict with Parliament.—Parliament was never willing to vote him money, unless he promised to stay within his own powers and not infringe upon the powers of Parliament. The quarrel between him and Parliament lasted during his entire reign, James never surrendering his idea that he could make the laws, and Parliament never surrendering its rights to make the laws.

Nowadays there is no such thing as the divine

right of kings or rulers anywhere. In nearly all lands the will of the people is supreme and no matter what may be the form of government the real power is in the hands of the people, who elect those they desire to make the laws they wish, and kings and rulers everywhere submit to the expressed will of the people themselves.

Jamestown in Virginia.—It was during the reign of James I that the English merchants began seriously to consider a colony in America. Two companies were formed for the purpose of colonization, the London Company and the Plymouth Company. Their charters authorized them to make settlements in North America in the land which Raleigh had named Virginia. In December, 1606, the London Company dispatched three small ships with one hundred and five persons on board bound for the New World. After a four months' voyage they reached a river which they named the James River, and founded a town May 13, 1607, which they named Jamestown. Both river and town were named for King James.

Jamestown was the first permanent English settlement in America. The colonists were selected from among the hard-working and worthy, but poor, people of England, who were willing to come to America. There was no religious reason for their coming. They were sent over strictly for colonization purposes to settle on lands claimed by England.

Captain John Smith.—The colony at Jamestown owed a great deal to Captain John Smith. He it was who kept up their courage, made peace with the Indians, nursed the colonists when they were ill, and started them on their way to prosperity. There were many discouragements and hardships. There was the starving time when nearly all died, and Indian massacres when many were killed, but the brave and sturdy colony survived and prospered.

The Pilgrims come to America.—Some of the Puritans were weary of their struggle to purify the Church, and finally made up their minds to separate from the Church and form one of their own and to worship in their own way. For this reason they were called Separatists. A band of these Puritans left England early in the reign of James I and made their home in Holland. Here they stayed twelve years, working hard, and having the kind of Church they liked. But Holland did not please them, for their children were learning the Dutch language and the Dutch customs, and the leaders foresaw that the colony would be absorbed by the Dutch people sooner or later and be no longer English but Dutch. Those wanderers, who became known as Pilgrims, decided to come to the New World. The king gave them permission to found a colony in his possessions in America.

Colony of Plymouth.—In 1620, about one hundred of these Pilgrims went on board their vessel, the

Mayflower. Driven by bad weather farther north than they intended to go, they landed on the coast of New England, and founded the colony of Plymouth, December 21, 1620, thirteen years after

The Pilgrims, exiled from England, and dissatisfied with Holland, came to the shores of America and founded the colony of Plymouth in 1620.

Jamestown was settled. The colony suffered great hardship the first winter, but held on steadily and prospered.

While other colonists had come to America seeking gold or gain, or in a spirit of adventure, the

"Pilgrim Fathers" came here to find a place where they could worship as they chose, undisturbed by kings and rulers.

They brought stern virtues and hard lives to the land of their adoption. They frowned upon all levity in speech and manners; they punished evildoers for simple offenses; they forced all men to work; and were severe in their observance of the Sabbath. Even to this day we say that one who is strict in his ideas of duty and propriety is puritanical.

34. CHARLES I

We now come to the reign of Charles I, the son of King James. Charles was very much of a gentleman, unlike his father, who was a rough and uncouth man. They were alike, however, in their belief in the divine right of kings. He still maintained that the king was above Parliament, and that the king's word was law. He acted on the principle that subjects had no rights which the king was bound to respect.

Quarrels with Parliament.—In the first year of his reign he dispatched a fleet upon a vague scheme of capturing some Spanish ships loaded with treasure from the American mines. Not having any money to procure war vessels, his fleet was made up of merchant vessels with seamen pressed into service, to be paid by forced loans upon his subjects. The enterprise was a miserable failure and Charles began

his reign with a quarrel with Parliament over paying for this undertaking.

Parliament also refused to grant Charles the money he wanted for his petty wars with Spain and France. The leaders thought the wars were foolish and the campaigns badly managed. Besides that, the advisers and favorites of Charles were not popular, and the doctrine of the divine right of kings was by no means acceptable to the people.

It had been the custom in England to give the king the tax on shipping and on merchandise for his lifetime, but Parliament was so doubtful of Charles and so indignant at his foolish waste of money that the members granted him this tax for one year only. Charles went into a great rage, dismissed Parliament, carried on his wars, and proceeded to levy the taxes on the people anyhow. This he did by making the people lend money to the crown as forced loans, which he had no intention of ever paying.

The Petition of Rights.—When another Parliament assembled the members presented to Charles what was called a Petition of Rights. He was made to understand that he could get no supplies unless he signed it. The petition declared it was illegal to quarter soldiers in the houses of the people, to try offenders by other than the regular courts of law, to make loans or levy taxes without consent of Parliament, and to imprison any person except upon a specific charge.

The king at first declined to grant the petition, for it took away many of the things he held due as the king's right; but he needed money and could not help himself, so he signed it (1628) and another great step was taken in protecting the people from the wilfulness of their rulers. Then Parliament voted the supplies the king needed.

Lord Baltimore founds Maryland in America.—Another quarrel that Charles had with Parliament was over the religious question. The king had married a French princess named Henrietta Maria, who was a Roman Catholic. This made him lenient to her religion, though he could not profess her faith. One of his friends was George Calvert, a Catholic, whom the king had made Lord Baltimore. Calvert wanted to found a Catholic colony in America. The king granted to him, as Lord Baltimore, a portion of land north of the Potomac River. The land was named Maryland in honor of the wife of the king. Lord Baltimore was given almost supreme powers in his grant. He could coin money, create courts, appoint judges, and do pretty much as he pleased.

George Calvert did not live to found his colony, but his son Leonard Calvert came over in 1634 with a body of Catholics and a few Protestants and founded the colony which has grown into the state of Maryland.

Charles in conflict with Parliament.—Charles had also allowed many ceremonies introduced into the

church worship that were so much like the Roman Catholic ceremonies that Puritans began to fear a return to that faith. The members determined to

Charles I, king of England, quarrels with Parliament and in a great rage dismisses it, and rules for eleven years without it.

protest against these ceremonies, for they were all intensely Protestant and were determined to have nothing in the church service that looked like Catho-

lic forms. The Speaker of the House of Commons knew that the protest was coming and tried to adjourn the assembly before it could be passed, saying he did so by the king's orders.

But Parliament was in no humor for trifling. King or no king they were resolved to be heard. Two of the members held the Speaker in his chair and another locked the door, while the protest was read and passed. The protest declared that whoever used the forms and ceremonies or taught the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church, or whoever paid any tax not voted by Parliament, was a traitor to his country.

In the meantime the king had sent his royal messenger to dismiss the assembly, but the door was locked and the messenger beat in vain upon its panels. Nobody paid any attention to him. When the protest was passed the doors were opened and Parliament quietly adjourned.

Charles and "monopolies."—Charles was so angry at this protest that he dismissed Parliament, saying he would rule without it. This he did for eleven long years, but they were miserable years for himself and for his people. He and his ministers devised all sorts of ways to fill his treasury. One way was by granting "monopolies." For instance, the privilege of making soap or any other article for sale would be given to one company only, who would pay an enormous price for this exclusive right. All other per-

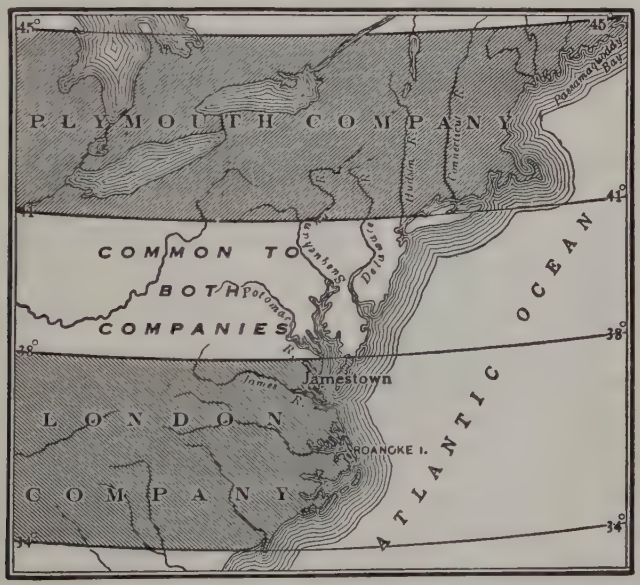
sons or companies would be forbidden to make this article. By selling monopolies of this kind the king raised money, but he also raised a great deal of complaint.

Other means of raising money.—Besides these monopolies the king enlarged the forests that belonged to the crown, and if any one whose lands were taken in desired to buy back his land he had to pay a large amount of money to redeem it. Then he compelled many freeholders to become knights and pay for the privilege. One can well see how the people came to fear and despise so tyrannical a ruler.

John Winthrop.—The Puritans suffered under such a government as this. They were fined for trivial offenses and were persecuted in many ways. It was but reasonable that the thoughts of their leaders turned away from England, where there was so much tyranny and so much oppression, unto the New World, where there was already a colony of their Pilgrim brethren enjoying freedom to do as they pleased. John Winthrop, a Puritan leader, published a list of the grievances the Puritans were suffering in England. He ended by declaring that they should no longer remain in a land where the Puritans and their children were "perverted, corrupted, and utterly overthrown by a multitude of evil examples."

At the time when Charles was using every means

he could to raise money, and the complaint against him was at its height, the Plymouth Company secured a charter to a vast territory in the New World which they called New England. This company sent over a body of Puritans with John Endicott as



Territory of the Plymouth and London Companies.

leader, who landed on the shores of Massachusetts and founded the colony of Salem (1628). The next year Endicott sent an exploring party up the river, which was named Charles, after the king, and founded Charlestown.

The Puritans come to America.—Another company was organized known as the Company of

Massachusetts Bay in New England, with liberal provisions for self-government. This company took the place of the old company, and under its provisions many Puritans of wealth and prominence, and even whole congregations, came over to America. In 1630, under the leadership of John Winthrop, more than a thousand came over and settled the town of Boston. The story goes that when the ship was ready to sail, there were on board two men whom the king particularly disliked and who were forcibly forbidden to go. One was Oliver Cromwell. A few years later the king would have been glad if he had not interfered and had allowed Cromwell to leave his kingdom. We shall see more of Cromwell later on.

John Hampden declines to pay the tax.—The other was John Hampden, a bold leader, who, several years after he was refused the right to go to America, declined to pay a tax of twenty shillings for ship-money, as it was called. This was a tax on seaport towns to repel invasion by sea. As there was no invasion and no danger of one, Hampden declined to pay the tax. For this he was tried by the king's court of twelve judges. Seven voted against him and five voted for him. He was declared guilty and made to pay the fine, but from the fact that all the judges were the king's men, and five of them opposed his measures, the people took courage and many more refused to pay the unjust tax. Thus Charles,

in trying to rule without a Parliament and to collect money by illegal taxes, was driving the people out of his kingdom to America and making those at home more and more dissatisfied with the way he was acting.

During the eleven years when Charles ruled without a Parliament as many as twenty thousand Puritans, dissatisfied with the church ceremonies and the high taxes, left their country and found homes and freedom in New England. Thus we see how America profited by the folly of an English king.

John Hampden, a bold Englishman, who declined to pay an unjust tax of twenty shillings to King Charles I.

The rebellion in Scotland.—And now came trouble in Scotland over such a simple matter as the use of the Prayer Book. The Scotch were Presbyterians and did not want to use the Prayer Book that Charles and his clergy said they should use. The obstinate king ordered it to be done. The Scotch declared the Prayer Book was too much like the Roman Catholic forms, and besides that the king had no right to enforce English customs upon his subjects in Scotland,

even if he was their king also. The new service was read in a church in Edinburgh in 1637. A riot immediately broke out. An old woman arose and threw her stool at the head of the minister and cried out, "Do you mean to say Mass in my ear?" The others thronged out of the church.

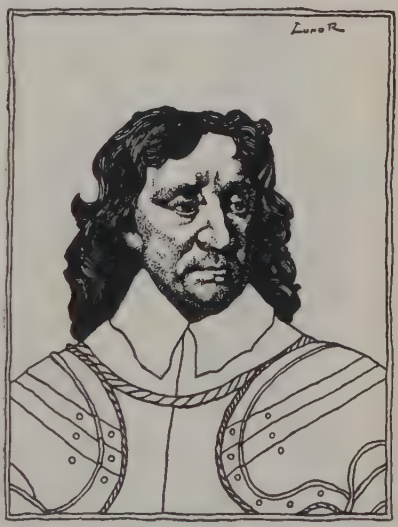
All Scotland rose in wrath at this action of the king in forcing a form of worship that ill-suited the Scotch Presbyterian temper. A solemn oath and covenant was signed by the leaders to defend their form of religion with their lives. The Covenant spread over Scotland, and the Covenanters rose in arms and crossed the border. It was rebellion against the king, and Charles had no money to pay soldiers to meet the invaders.

35. OLIVER CROMWELL

The Short Parliament.—Charles was compelled to call a Parliament together to raise money. Instead of voting men and money, the leaders, among whom were John Hampden and Oliver Cromwell, attacked the king's action in Church and state affairs. Getting no money and too much advice, the king angrily dismissed this Parliament after a session of twenty-three days. It is known as the Short Parliament.

Oliver Cromwell.—In November, 1640, Charles called another Parliament. This is known as the Long Parliament, for it lasted twenty years. Oliver Cromwell was a member of this Parliament also.

He was a well-to-do country gentleman, of stern virtues, and an able and fearless leader of those opposed to the king. He was an honest and upright man, a rigid Puritan in his beliefs, and a defender of all who were oppressed. He had so little vanity that when a painter in painting his portrait left off the big wart that was over his right eyebrow, he sternly said, "Paint me as I am—wart and all."

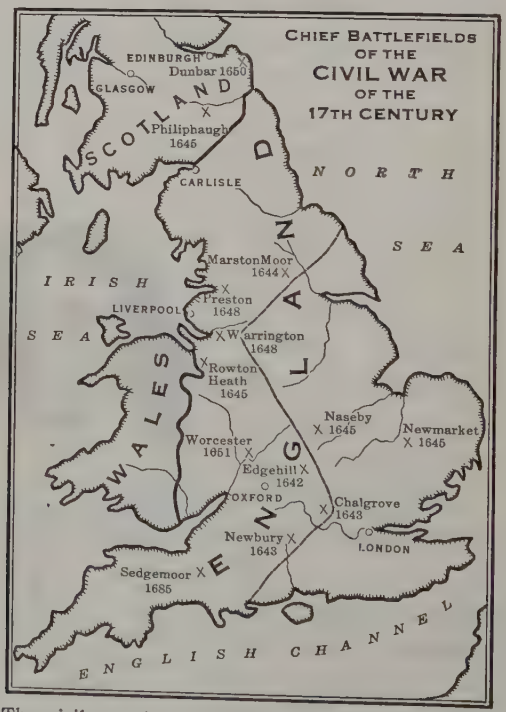


Oliver Cromwell, who became Lord High Protector of England, after the execution of Charles I.

For the next twenty years Parliament, and not the king, controlled the course of English affairs, nor has its control ever since fallen into the insignificance it once had.

Charles tries to arrest the five members.—The debates were angry at times and the king was not spared. Finally the Parliament passed a Remonstrance, which was a statement of all the crimes and wrongdoings of the king since the beginning of his reign. Charles was furious of course and determined to seize five members who were leaders of the assembly. Taking five hundred soldiers with him he

stationed them around the house, and then boldly strode in and declared he had come to arrest the five traitors. But the five members being forewarned



The civil war in England was waged between the armies of Charles I and the armies of Parliament, led by Oliver Cromwell.

had escaped, and the king had to retire with much ill grace and mortification.

Civil war in England.—The king and Parliament were now completely at variance. Charles was angry and willful, and Parliament was determined

to curb his power. The time had come for the English rulers to understand that the English people had rights which kings were bound to respect. Civil war was at hand. Charles left his palace to form an army to overpower Parliament, which refused to be dismissed. Parliament raised an army to fight the king. The queen went over to the Continent, taking with her the crown jewels to sell or pawn to get money for arms and ammunition for the king's army.

The Cavaliers were so called, because they wore their hair long, dressed like dandies, and often appeared on horseback.

Cavaliers and Roundheads. —Charles raised an army of ten thousand men, mostly from the north and west of England. Parliament on the other hand raised an army of twenty thousand men mostly from the south and east of England. But these lines were loosely drawn. Generally speaking, the nobles, wealthy gentlemen, and high churchmen, followed the king and were royalists. The lesser gentry, the peasants, and the tradespeople were parliamentarians. The king's soldiers were called Cavaliers because they were of importance and wealth and many of them rode horses and wore their hair long. The parlia-

mentarians were called Roundheads because they cut their hair short, showing the shape of the head. Generally the Puritans joined the army of Parliament.

Cromwell's army.—Oliver Cromwell became the leader of the parliamentary army. He drilled and disciplined his rude peasant soldiers until they became a perfect fighting machine. Religious zeal banished fear of death. They neither swore nor drank. They spent their leisure time in praying and preaching. They went into battle repeating scripture and singing psalms. It was a religious army the like of which the world had never seen. They came to be called the Ironsides, for no charge of the king's troopers could make any impression on their ranks.

The Roundheads were so called because they wore their hair short, dressed simply, and were mainly of the common people.

The trial and execution of Charles.—We need not follow the many battles between the army of the king and the army of Cromwell. The civil war lasted seven years, and as in all wars there was a great deal of bitterness and bloodshed. Finally the king's army was defeated everywhere and the king himself was made prisoner. For a long while Parliament tried to get Charles to listen to reason,

but he was as obstinate as ever. The parliamentary army vowed they would bring Charles to trial for his crimes. To this the members of Parliament would

Cromwell's army went into battle singing hymns. They were called Ironsides, because no attack of the king's forces could make any impression upon their courage.

not at first agree, for they still had great respect for him as their king, but very little for him as a person. An officer of the army boldly went into Parliament and insolently thrust out all but sixty members.

Those sixty brought Charles to trial for treason against the nation and condemned him to death as a tyrant and a public enemy. He was beheaded in London in 1649 in front of the royal palace. It was said that Cromwell came to view the body of the king, and looking upon it remarked with a sigh, "It was a cruel necessity."

The Barebones Parliament.—What was left of the Parliament met and abolished the office of king and the House of Lords, which they declared useless and dangerous. The nation was now ruled by the handful of men left in Parliament and by the iron will of Cromwell himself. For four years this continued, until Cromwell dissolved or rather dismissed this Parliament, and summoned another. There were many Puritans in the assembly. There was one member named Praise-God Barebones, for the Puritans were fond of taking some Bible phrase or word instead of their own names. In derision the Royalists called this assembly the Barebones Parliament. Members were completely controlled by Cromwell.

Cromwell made Protector.—This assembly lasted but a short while. The Council which had been formed by Cromwell made him Lord High Protector (1657) with all the powers of a king of a limited monarchy. The Puritans were now in complete control of the government. Cromwell went to live in the royal palace and ruled the nation with a firm hand. He was as arbitrary as ever any king was,

Cromwell dismisses the Long Parliament and rules England with his own iron hand.

but it was an unselfish and patriotic firmness that was all for the benefit of England.

Cromwell's manner of life.—Cromwell's life in the palace was not the luxurious and expensive life of a king, but was as simple as it had been at his own home. He gathered around him his family and had daily prayers and singing of hymns. The most pious and learned men of the day were his friends. The great poet Milton, who afterwards wrote *Paradise Lost,* was his secretary. When ambassadors from other countries came to him, and according to custom would kiss his hand as though he were king, he drew back and gravely bowed to them. But he demanded the utmost respect in his dealings with foreign governments. He would accept no letter unless the style of address was the usual one between sovereigns, "Our Dear Brother Oliver." He considered his position as high in rank as that of any king in Europe and bore himself accordingly. He said, "I hope to make the name of Englishman as great as ever that of a Roman had been." All the kings and ministers of Europe bowed to his demands and courted his favor.

War with the Dutch.—England needed just such a strong hand as that of Cromwell. Ever since the days of Elizabeth the power and influence of England had been declining. Under Cromwell's rule the old glory of the country returned. The greatest naval exploit of the times was the defeat of the

Dutch navy in the English Channel. The war began over the carrying trade of England in Dutch vessels.

The Dutch had absorbed almost all the carrying trade of the world in their own vessels. Amsterdam

The English fleet in the channel, under Admiral Blake, defeat the Dutch fleet.

had become a greater center of marine industry than London. To encourage British commerce Parliament passed the Navigation Act (1651), which prohibited any merchandise being brought to England

by Dutch or any other foreign vessels. The Dutch resented this measure. There were other differences between the two nations, and finally war broke out between England and the Dutch.

Admiral Blake.—The English ships were commanded by Admiral Blake, himself a quiet Puritan, who allowed no drinking, nor swearing, nor gambling on his vessels. In November, 1652, Blake met the Dutch fleet, outnumbering him two to one. The battle lasted all day and Blake withdrew with shattered ships. The Dutch commander fastened a broom to the masthead of his ship and sailed up and down the Channel as a sign that he had swept the English from the sea. A few months later Blake, with a larger fleet, met the Dutch and completely overthrew them. Then Blake fastened a horse-whip to his vessel and sailed up and down the Channel, as a sign that the Dutch had been completely beaten. The Dutch were compelled to agree to salute the English flag whenever they met it on the high seas.

While Cromwell's rule was strict, it was also liberal and just. The Jews, who had been banished under Edward I, were allowed to return. He was kind to the Quakers, whom everybody looked upon as enemies to the Church and state. He thought of sending missionaries to the Indians in America. The first one that came over was John Eliot, who translated the Bible into the language of the savages and who became known as the Apostle to the Indians.

The severe laws of Cromwell.—The government of Cromwell was too arbitrary and severe to suit all the English people. There were too many laws forbidding things the people thought were harmless. There were laws against playing games, dancing, fox-hunting, and going to theatres. People were fined if they did not go to church or went to any church other than the nearest one. Then the fine old cathedrals were abused and neglected, the statues and stained glass windows broken, and the rich carvings damaged. Discontent arose because there were those who thought the Puritans were going too far.

The old families of Virginia.—Those conditions had their influence on the history of America. Under Cromwell, and his Puritan rule, life was too severe for the friends of the dead king, Charles I. Many of the courtiers, who had been country gentlemen of large estates, moved to Virginia, where they bought large plantations, built beautiful houses, planted fields of tobacco, and bought slaves to work the soil. Among those who came to America during the time of Cromwell were John Washington, the great-grandfather of George Washington, and the ancestors of Jefferson, Patrick Henry, the Lees, the Randolphs, and others of the old families of Virginia.

Death of Cromwell.—Cromwell himself was growing old and fearful. He was afraid of being assassinated and wore a shirt of mail to protect his body.

He rarely slept in the same room two nights in succession for fear some one would stab him in his sleep. Then a mortal illness came upon him. He died in 1658, after having been sole master of affairs in England for five years, though he had held the office of Lord High Protector for only a little over fourteen months.

Charles II, king of England, who was restored to the throne, after the death of Richard, the son of Oliver Cromwell.

The Restoration. — Cromwell was succeeded by his son Richard, but only for a short while. England was ready to restore its old monarchy, and amid great rejoicings the son of Charles I, who was in Holland, was sent for and crowned king as Charles II. This is known in history as the Restoration. This ended the Puritan rule in England.

The regicides.—The first act of Parliament was to punish those who had been concerned in the condemnation of Charles I. The chief among these were the "regicides," as those were called who were the judges at the trial of the king. Thirteen were executed. Three escaped to America. The story goes that years afterwards when the Indians attacked the

town of Hadley in Massachusetts, and the settlers were at a loss for a leader, an old man with long hair and gray beard suddenly appeared and led them to victory against the savages. It was said that the old man was Colonel Goffe, one of the judges who had escaped to this country.

The Dutch in Manhattan Island.—It will be remembered that the Dutch had settled on Manhattan Island in America. They had named their town New Amsterdam and were fast building up a trade with the English colonies. Their ships were carrying large quantities of tobacco, furs, and other products to Holland that the English merchants thought should go to England. Charles II was persuaded that it was time to put a stop to Dutch colonization in America, especially as all the land they occupied was claimed by England on account of the voyages and discoveries of John Cabot.

In 1664 Charles granted all the land in America occupied by the Dutch to his brother, the Duke of York, who afterwards became James II of England. A fleet of English ships appeared off the coast of Manhattan Island and the Dutch were ordered to surrender their town.

New Amsterdam becomes New York.—Governor Stuyvesant was in a great rage and tore up the order for surrender. The people, however, had grown tired of the irritable old governor, and saw how useless it was to contend against the great strength of the

English fleet. They made Stuyvesant surrender, for it mattered little to them under what flag they lived, so long as they could remain peaceably in their own homes. The name of the village was changed from New Amsterdam to New York. At that time it contained only fifteen hundred people, but it has since grown into one of the great cities of the world. All the Dutch claims were ceded to the English, though the Dutch people remained as good citizens and subjects of the king of England.

William Penn.—It was during the reign of Charles II that William Penn, a Quaker, was granted a large tract of land in America for a Quaker colony. The settlement was the beginning of the state of Pennsylvania. Also the king granted to a number of his friends all the territory between Virginia and Florida as a reward for their devotion to his father. It was a princely gift, out of which three great states have been formed, but at that time it was all known as Carolina.

36. LOUIS XIV

The beginning of his reign.—Let us turn our attention to France and see how that country was growing in power and influence. When Louis XIV came to the throne in 1643 he was the most absolute ruler in Europe. There had been victories for the French armies abroad and there was peace at home. He was the embodiment of the divine right

of kings and there was practically no limit upon his royal authority. For the time he was one king who could do as he pleased and the French people were satisfied to have it so. He began his reign about the time that the civil war in England was going on between Charles I and Parliament.

His manners.—Louis was dignified and very elegant in manner and speech. He was pleased to be called the Grand Monarch and in every way deserved the title. He chose the sun as his emblem and when he was seated on his gilded throne, surrounded by flatterers and fawning courtiers, one could well believe the emblem was appropriate.

Louis XIV, King of France, during whose reign of 72 years, the kingdom reached its highest glory and prosperity.

His magnificence. — He built the magnificent palace at Versailles, twelve miles from Paris. Here the royal family, hundreds of noblemen, and hosts of retainers, could be taken care of. There was gilded furniture of the most expensive sort, and paintings, and priceless tapestries, and great halls hung with mirrors and lighted by crystal chandeliers. Around the building were beau-

tiful parks, with great trees, artificial lakes, and wonderful fountains. There were forests in which the king could hunt, and flower gardens and lawns through which he and his friends could walk. There was nothing in Europe to compare with such luxury. Even today the palace of Versailles is the admiration and delight of those who visit France.

In this palace the king lived a life of extravagance and ease. His courtiers were proud to hand him his

The magnificent Palace of Versailles, where Louis XIV held his court. It was at Versailles that the treaty ending the World War was signed in June, 1919.

wig, or even his towel when he bathed. Every morning there was a grand reception, when the king appeared and sat on his throne and his attendants gathered around him.

Louis and his ministers.—Of course all this cost vast sums of money, and the people had to pay. But they did not seem to mind it at first, for Louis was their Grand Monarch, and in spite of his kingly airs

EUROPE
WHEN LOUIS 14TH
BEGAN HIS PERSONAL
GOVERNMENT, 1661
ATLANTIC OCEAN
North Sea
Baltic Sea
KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
KINGDOM OF DENMARK
KINGDOM OF SWEDEN
POLAND
HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
SPANISH NETHERLANDS
SWITZERLAND
SAVOY
MILAN
VENICE
PAPAL STATES
TUSCANY
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
TURKISH DOMINIONS
HUNGARY
AUSTRIA
BOHEMIA
BAVARIA
SAXONY
BRANDENBERG
PRUSSIA
TRANSYLVANIA
MORAVIA
TYROL
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL
OLD CASTILE
NEW CASTILE
ARAGON
NAVARRE
BALEARIC ISLES
CORSICA
SARDINIA
SICILY
MOREA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
AFRICA
Edinburgh
Belfast
Dublin
Cork
IRELAND
WALES
London
Amsterdam
Hamburg
Bremen
Magdeburg
Minden
Berlin
Stralsund
Copenhagen
Konigsberg
Cologne
Dresden
Breslau
Krakow
Frankfort
Prague
Vienna
Buda
Pesth
Temesvar
Metz
Strasburg
Munich
Trieste
Paris
Versailles
Avignon
Turin
Milan
Venice
Florence
Genoa
Rome
Naples
Ragusa
Cattaro
Barcelona
Saragossa
Madrid
Valencia
Granada
Seville
Cadiz
Gibraltar
Ceuta Spain
Lisbon
Palermo
Messina

and extravagant habits, was a careful and industrious ruler. In his choice of ministers he was fortunate. Colbert was his minister of finance. Unlike most great statesmen of the time he was neither a nobleman nor a churchman, but was the son of a merchant. He was a shrewd business man, however. He discharged all dishonest tax collectors, imposed customs duties judiciously, and while he increased the royal revenue, it was done in such a way that the rich instead of the common people felt the heavy burden.

Colbert, the great minister of finance in the reign of Louis XIV.

Encouragement to industries. — Louis set about to improve business in France. By Colbert's advice he offered rewards for all inventions, and premiums were paid to those who started new industries. Workmen were encouraged to come from foreign countries, while French workmen were forbidden to leave the country. Many holidays were abolished, so that the people could have more time to work. Charters and even liberal sums of money were granted to companies who would establish colonial

settlements in India, Africa, and America. Canals were built in lower France, better roads were constructed from town to town. The business men of France never had a better champion than Colbert. The reign of Louis XIV began happily.

The French in America.—Under the influence of Louis, the French were busy in Canada and along the Great Lakes in America. There was a settlement at Quebec, from which traders pushed their way into the woods, buying furs from the Indians and building forts far into the heart of the interior. French priests went into the wilderness to convert the savages to Christianity. They lived in their villages, learned their language, endured untold hardship, and often ended their lives in the horrors of savage torture.

Louisiana.—In 1673 Marquette and Joliet explored the Mississippi River, but did not go as far as the mouth of the great stream. In 1682 Robert La Salle explored the entire length of the river, marked out sites for forts, and gave names to places in order to secure possession of the land. He and his party landed near the mouth of the Mississippi, set up a flag and standard, and in the name of the king took formal possession of all the territory drained by that river. He named the whole country Louisiana, in honor of Louis XIV.

The name Louisiana now belongs to one state, small indeed compared to the great area once called

In 1673 Marquette and Joliet explored the Mississippi as far down as the mouth of the Arkansas River.

by that name. The French claimed all the land drained by the Mississippi and its tributaries, which was about half the present territory of the United

In 1682 Robert LaSalle completed the exploration of the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico, and took possession of all the territory in the name of Louis XIV, king of France.

States. Their claims reached from the Rocky Mountains to the Allegheny Mountains, covered all of Canada, and reached from the Lakes to the Gulf of

Mexico. Under Louis XIV this was an imperial domain of which he was very proud.

Expulsion of the Huguenots.—We now come to the mistakes of the great monarch. The greatest of these was his treatment of the Huguenots, who were French Protestants. By the Edict of Nantes in 1598 the Huguenots had been granted all the privileges of French subjects, and were allowed to worship as they chose. But Louis, in 1685, was persuaded to revoke this edict and deprive them of these privileges unless they became Catholics. This the Huguenots refused to do. Then began a series of persecutions that drove three hundred thousand Huguenots out of France. They were among the best citizens of France, being skilled workmen in the arts and industries, and prosperous farmers. There were also many who belonged to the upper class of society. They escaped into England, Holland, and even to America. Their expulsion was a terrible loss to France. France ever since has remained a Catholic country.

The French colonies.—We are interested in the Huguenots on account of the numbers of them that came to America. As early as 1562 Ribault tried to found a colony of Huguenots at Port Royal, South Carolina, but failed. Two years later Laudonniere founded a similar colony at Fort Caroline on St. John's River in Florida. This settlement was destroyed by the Spaniards. In 1608 Samuel de Cham-

plain founded Quebec and large numbers of French came over to add to the population of that portion of the country.

The Huguenots in America.—When the Dutch settled on Manhattan Island and named their town New Amsterdam they sent over as emigrants a large number of French Huguenots, who had crowded into Holland on account of the persecutions in France. The first white child born on Manhattan Island was a French child. For several generations all official papers were printed in three languages, Dutch, French, and English, so that all the people could read them. Peter Minuit, governor of New Netherlands, was of French family.

The Huguenots also came to New England later on and merged with the population there. Their influence is suggested by the names of Paul Revere, Peter Faneuil, and Governor Bowdoin. It was mainly in Virginia and in the Carolinas, however, that the Huguenots formed a home, especially after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, when they left France in such large numbers. Some of the oldest families of Charleston and of other places in South Carolina trace their ancestors to French Huguenots who sought a home in America and freedom to worship in whatever manner pleased them.

War on the Dutch Republic.—Louis was ambitious of conquest. He wanted more land for France. He built up a great army of four hundred thousand

men, constructed forts along the frontiers, and set out for conquest. The last forty years of his long reign were occupied in costly wars. His first ambition was to make the Rhine the frontier of France on the north and east. With a splendid army he seized Lorraine and made war on the Dutch Republic. But William of Orange, the Dutch leader, was made of the same stuff as his great-grandfather, William the Silent, and when the French armies poured over the land, he ordered the dikes to be cut, and the waters of the North Sea stopped the invaders.

King William's War.—Then followed a ten years' truce during which Louis seized small bits of territory along the Rhine, including the city of Strassburg. In the meantime William of Orange had become king of England as William III. War broke out anew. This time it was between England and France, for England had taken Holland's place as opposed to the despotism of king Louis. In America this war is known as King William's War.

Queen Anne's War.—Both sides rested for five or six years, for Louis was finding wars expensive and his subjects were restless under the heavy burden of taxation. Then king William died and Anne became queen of England. War was renewed between the two countries, and was known in America as Queen Anne's War. It began in 1702 and lasted twelve years. At the treaty of peace at Utrecht in 1713

France gave up her claim to Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the Hudson Bay country.

The wars of Louis completely exhausted France. After Colbert died there was no great financier to raise revenue, encourage business, and keep down taxes. The industries of France declined under the crushing weight of taxation caused by the wars. Half the taxes went to pay the interest on the debt for war loans. The greatness of the monarch was lost in his ambition for a wider empire.

Court life of Louis XIV.—In spite of all this France became the acknowledged leader of Europe in intellectual affairs. The court of Louis was thronged with poets, writers, painters, and orators that excelled any other court of the time. The Age of Louis XIV was to France what the Age of Pericles was to Greece, and the Age of Elizabeth was to England. French thought, French fashions, the French language, spread over Europe and became the standard of cultivation and of polite society. The court of the great monarch was the model which every other court in Europe sought to imitate, but which none was ever able to equal. It has left its impress upon the court life of Europe to the present day.

It was said that Louis once exclaimed, "I am the state." Whether he said it or not, it was true in his case. It was also true in the case of other rulers in Europe except in England and in Holland. The kings were everything; the people were nothing, so

far as the government was concerned. It is fortunate for civilization that the dream of Louis for absolute dominion was not realized and that the cause of popular freedom was not lost.

He died in the year 1715, after a reign of seventy-two years, the longest reign in the history of Europe. He had become king when he was but four years old, though he did not take charge of the government until he was grown. So terribly had the people suffered in the latter years of his rule that they no longer admired him, but had completely turned against him. When he was dead and his body was carried through the streets the noisy crowds shouted curses at him, and celebrated his death by drinking and singing songs.

37. FREDERICK THE GREAT AND THE RISE OF PRUSSIA

The American colonies.—All the original thirteen states in America had been founded and named by the end of the year 1733. From Maine to Georgia there were English colonies, clinging to the Atlantic coast, with ill-defined limits toward the west. All the great territory of the interior, drained by the Mississippi and its tributaries, was claimed by France. Canada also was in possession of France. Florida was a small possession of Spain.

The English colonists were greater in number and more determined in purpose than their rivals. Eng-

lish ships came every day to some Atlantic seaport, bringing colonists who sprang eagerly to the work of building up villages and towns in the New World.

France with a population four times as large as England had only one-twentieth as many colonists in America. There were about sixty thousand French in all the vast territory to the north and west, while there were more than a million English in the thirteen colonies along the Atlantic. We can readily see that the time must come when France and England would decide which nation was to control the destiny of America.

We shall see in this lesson how the ambitious schemes of a Prussian ruler brought about a war that was the occasion of settling a question of so much importance to America.

Frederick II and his army.—In 1740 there came to the throne of Prussia a young king, Frederick II, who afterwards became known as Frederick the Great. He was twenty-eight years of age, fair-haired, blue-eyed, short of stature, and absolute ruler of a considerable kingdom lying mostly along the Baltic Sea. His father and grandfather had left him a state that was intensely military, with a standing army out of all proportion to its population. Though ranking twelfth among European nations it was fourth in military power. It took about three-fourths of all the revenue to maintain its standing army.

The rulers of Prussia for a hundred years had believed in military order, and had impressed this faith on the people so firmly that it has been handed down to the Germans even to the present day. Militarism in Germany began in Prussia two hundred and fifty years ago. Frederick the Great inherited a throne supported by the strictest military discipline, and upheld by the landlords of great estates, whose interests were to stand by the king and get as much as they could out of the people.

Frederick William I.—The father of Frederick, known as Frederick William I, had been a stern drill-master of his subjects. He was an irascible ruler, who meddled in all the affairs of his kingdom. He had a curious passion for tall soldiers, and had his agents ransack the world for giants to form his household regiments. Though exercising economy to a cruel extent in his own home, he would pay any amount for a recruit seven feet high. With his heavy cane he walked the streets of Berlin and did not hesitate to berate or belabor any one whose conduct or appearance displeased him. He reared his children with such severe discipline that there was hardly a peasant's family that fared worse than his own household.

The early life of Frederick the Great.—Under such conditions grew up Frederick the Great. He was fond of music, poetry, and dancing, and affected the French fashions then so popular throughout Europe.

He played the flute, wrote verses, and passed much of his time in talking literature with the scholars and poets he had collected around him, or else in idle pleasure with his friends. Under the rigid discipline of his father the young man had no chance to show what character was beneath his gay exterior.

When his father died and Frederick came to the throne, the responsibility of so great an office sobered him at once. His gay friends found that Frederick was master of his kingdom, with a great ambition for more territory, for fame and glory in war. He took a deep interest in all the details of his government, and had a lively appreciation of the culture and learning of his time.

Frederick the Great, King of Prussia, whose military ambition brought nearly all of Europe into war.

The seizure of Silesia. —To the south of his kingdom lay the rich and fertile country of Silesia, a possession of Austria. Frederick, without any good claim to the country, and simply because he wanted more territory and Silesia seemed an easy prey, and without any declaration of war, marched his well-trained army into Silesia and

seized it by force. Maria Theresa, the beautiful queen of Austria, was aghast at this outrage of her possession, but was powerless to prevent it.

War of the Austrian Succession.—The appeal of Austria brought other nations into a general war, known in Europe as the War of the Austrian Succession. France was an ally of Frederick, while England and Holland sided with Austria. In America this war is known as King George's War because George II was king of England. The war lasted eight years, and at the treaty of peace Silesia was left in the hands of Prussia. Frederick had proved himself a great general, the idol of his people, who overlooked his faults in the splendor of his achievements. Prussia now reached down into the very heart of Middle Europe and was a rival of Austria. England and France realized very clearly that they were rivals for realms outside of Europe, and the American continent was the great issue between them.

The Seven Years' War.—Maria Theresa, the brave young queen of Austria, bided her time and waited for a war of revenge. She would not yield Silesia, "the fairest jewel of her crown," to Prussia without another struggle. She strengthened her forces, made allies of France and Russia, and laid plans to overthrow Frederick and divide his realm among the nations of Europe. In 1756 began the greatest war of the eighteenth century, known as the Seven Years' War. Austria, France, and Russia were allied

against Prussia and England, of whom Frederick had made an ally. Frederick the Great was the object of attack and the seizure of Silesia was the cause. The war was world-wide. In America it is known as the French and Indian War, being really a struggle on this side between England and France.

The war in Europe.— We need not follow the details of that long and mighty struggle. The odds were overwhelmingly against Frederick, but he was the greatest general of his age, supported by an army disciplined to the last degree, while his enemies were divided and half-hearted. In 1757 he met a French army at Rossbach and defeated it completely. Then he met the Austrians at Leuthen, in Silesia, and overwhelmed them. The Russians invaded Prussia and even entered Berlin. Frederick, staggering under the fearful strain of a long war, was almost exhausted of men and supplies. But in the nick of time the Russian empress died and the new czar was a friend of Fred-

Maria Theresa, queen of Austria, who appealed to the nations of Europe to defend Silesia against the invasion of Frederick.

erick. This took Russia out of the war. England also withdrew, leaving Prussia and Austria to fight their own battles. The result was easily foreseen. What Austria could not do with her allies, she could not do alone. Frederick held his iron grasp on Silesia and kept it after the treaty of peace in 1763. Maria Theresa's war of revenge was a failure.

The war in America.—All this time William Pitt was the great English minister. He was the directing genius of the war, as Frederick was its greatest general. Pitt vigorously waged the war on this side of the ocean. It was the period when the young George Washington carried a message from the governor of Virginia to the French in the Ohio valley, telling them to plant no more colonies in that territory, to which message the French paid no attention. It was the time when General Braddock was sent over with an English army to drive out the French, and met his disastrous defeat near Fort Duquesne. It was the time of the surrender of Fort William Henry by the English to the French, and the massacre of the English troops by the savages. It was the time of the expulsion of the French Acadians from Nova Scotia on account of their refusal to take the oath of allegiance to the British flag.

The capture of Quebec.—In 1759 when Frederick was engaged in his great struggle with Austria, France, and Russia, William Pitt determined on the bold stroke of capturing Quebec, the stronghold of

France in America. He selected the brave James Wolfe to lead the English forces up the St. Lawrence to capture the fort. It was to determine the fate of the empire in America. Wolfe and his men succeeded in climbing the steep cliff, in the dead of night, and in overcoming Montcalm and the French on the Heights of Abraham. Both brave leaders lost

At the end of the Seven Years' War, Prussia became the foremost military power on the continent of Europe.

their lives in the heroic conflict, but Quebec fell into the hands of the English, and the fate of France in America was settled for all time.

At the treaty of peace that ended the Seven Years' War, France ceded to England all of Canada and all her possessions east of the Mississippi. Spain was given all the territory of Louisiana, west of the Mississippi. France ceased to be an American power,

and henceforth we were destined to be an English and not a French people.

The Seven Years' War had cost a million lives and loaded every state in Europe, except Prussia who paid as she went by heavy taxes, with a debt that took a hundred and fifty years to cancel. France lost her colonial empires; Austria lost much of her power and prestige; Prussia became the foremost military power on the continent; England gained largely in America and India, and was still the undisputed mistress of the seas.

TOPICS FOR REVIEW

The world in 1600.—The theory of Copernicus; how the people received it; present-day belief about the revolution of the earth. Galileo, his discoveries and inventions. William Harvey and the circulation of the blood. Francis Bacon and scientific research. Skilled workmen welcomed to England; the rise of the woolen industry. Hardships of the tenants; robbers and highwaymen. The lives of the landlords. The condition of the cities. The call of the New World.

James I and the English colonies in America.—James I; his habits; his learning; his arbitrary nature. His religious inheritance and rearing. His adherence to the established forms. The translation of the Bible; how made; its influence. James's idea of the divine right of kings. Quarrels with Parliament over money affairs. The founding of Jamestown. Captain John Smith and his services to the colony. The Pilgrims come to America; the colony of Plymouth. The character of the Pilgrims.

Charles I.—How he began his reign with a quarrel with Parliament. How Charles treated Parliament; how he raised money. The Petition of Rights; Charles consents. Maryland founded and named. Quarrels with Parliament over forms and ceremonies. Rules without Parliament; sale of monopolies; enlarging the forests. John Winthrop. The founding of Salem; of Charlestown; of Boston. The story of John Hampden refusing to pay the tax. The quarrel over the Prayer Book. The Scotch rebellion; the Covenanters.

Oliver Cromwell.—The Short Parliament. The character of Oliver Cromwell. The Remonstrance of Parliament; the five members. Civil war in England. Cavaliers and Roundheads. The soldiers of Cromwell. The trial and execution of Charles I. The rule of the Puritans. Cromwell made Protector. The life of Cromwell in the palace; his treatment of ambassadors. The defeat of the Dutch Navy. Cromwell's leniency to the Jews; the Quakers; missionaries to the Indians. The strict laws of Cromwell's reign. Those who came to Virginia. The death of Cromwell. The restoration of Charles II. Story of the regicides. New Amsterdam captured; Stuyvesant; New York. William Penn.

Louis XIV.—His kingdom; his power; his court. The palace at Versailles; its magnificence. Colbert and his financial policy. Encouragement to industries; to colonial settlements. French enterprise in America. La Salle and Louisiana. Treatment of the Huguenots. French settlements in America. War on the Dutch Republic; its result. King William's War. Queen Anne's War. France exhausted. The Age of Louis XIV; court life. His death.

Frederick the Great and the rise of Prussia.—The original thirteen American colonies in 1733. French and English population in America. Frederick II; his military

state; its rank. Militarism in Germany. Frederick William I and his habits. The early life of Frederick the Great. Silesia; its invasion; Maria Theresa. The War of the Austrian Succession. The Seven Years' War in Europe; the French and Indian War in America. William Pitt and his policy in America; George Washington; Braddock; Fort William Henry; French Acadians. The capture of Quebec. The result of the Seven Years' War.

SUBJECTS FOR DISCUSSION

What conditions in England drove immigrants to America? Discuss the influence of King James's Bible on the world. What was wrong about the divine right of kings? Was the quarrel of James I and Charles I with Parliament wise? Discuss the character of Cromwell. What made his soldiers "Ironsides"? How did Virginia profit by Cromwell's rule? What were the good traits and the bad traits in the character of Louis XIV? What explorers did Louis encourage in America? What was his greatest mistake? How did America profit by his treatment of the Huguenots? In what way did Frederick the Great affect the history of America?

CHAPTER VIII

THE AGE OF REVOLUTION

38. LIFE AND MANNERS OF THE ENGLISH PEOPLE

The dress of the rich classes.—For many years before and during the reign of George III the dress of the rich classes of England was most elaborate and costly. The men wore their hair long, curled and powdered, or else wore large, flowing wigs, some with a braid down the back tied with a ribbon. Their dress was adorned with lace and ruffles, and was as splendid as that of the ladies of the court or of their household. Knee breeches, silk stockings, and silk shoes with gold or silver buckles were the fashion. The men carried long slender swords known as rapiers, with gold or diamond studded hilts. The women dressed with great elegance, wearing wide trailing skirts of silk and satin. They powdered their hair and painted their faces and ornamented them with small black patches, often cut in some design to show to which political party they belonged. Toward the end of the reign of George III those fashions were gradually laid aside and the

dress of men and women became simpler and more like that of the present day.

The dress of the poor classes.—The dress of the peasants and the common people was far different. They wore rough woolen garments made out of cloth manufactured in their own huts on homemade spinning wheels and looms. The clothes were then made by the women of the family. Their houses were still rough wooden affairs, with thatched roofs and open fireplaces for cooking. There was a vast difference between the condition of the lordly upper classes who owned the land and the poor people who worked for their masters for a few pence a day.

Schools.—The wealthy classes sent their children to school to learn Latin and Greek and to read the English classics. There was no thought of teaching better agriculture, or science, or health, or anything of the sort in the schools of that day. The discipline was harsh and often cruel. The best recommendation of a schoolmaster was that of being "learned and lashing."

Ignorance of the masses.—As for the poorer classes, there was hardly a peasant in all England over forty years of age who could read a verse in the Bible, and not one in ten who knew how to write his name. If one knew how to read, he would gather his neighbors together and read to them the new translation of the Bible made in king James's time, of very simple words. But little advance had been

made in public education, and the great mass of English people were almost as ignorant as they were in the Middle Ages. There was yet not much thought or care on the part of the upper classes in the government itself for the poor toiling masses.

Condition of the masses.—There were not many books, very few newspapers or magazines, not much letter writing, and no system of public schools. The poor rarely left the counties where they were born, and knew very little of what was going on in the world. The poor man's county was almost his prison. If he tried to leave it he was almost certain to be arrested, tried for vagrancy, and sent back to the place from which he had come. Only a few could vote, and these few were bought or influenced to do as the leaders said. The great mass of the people still toiled in the fields, ignorant and careless, content to be let alone, and glad if the great lords who owned most of the land did not ride down their crops and destroy their fences while hunting.

The people were so ignorant that when Parliament decreed that September 3, 1752, should be reckoned as September 14, to correct an error which had grown up in the calendar, a mob gathered about the Parliament building and demanded, "Give us back our eleven days." They thought that by some means they had lost eleven days' pay.

Correcting the calendar.—The reason for correcting the calendar was that the Julian Calendar, in use

after 46 B.C., took the year to be some minutes longer than it really is. This was corrected by Pope Gregory in 1582, and the correction was adopted by all Catholic countries. Protestant England declined to make the correction and used the old style. By 1752 the difference between English time and Continental European time was eleven days. To

Stagecoaches carried a few passengers from place to place, over wretched roads and at exorbitant prices.

make all dates uniform the Parliament made the correction, and today the new style is used in most countries of the world, including our own.

Roads and travel.—The roads of England were in a wretched condition. Stagecoaches carried a few passengers from place to place, charging exorbitant prices and going not more than three miles an hour. But the roads were rough, with heavy sand beds and

sometimes quagmires, where coaches and wagons often came to grief. It took an entire day to go a distance in which a train now goes in less than an

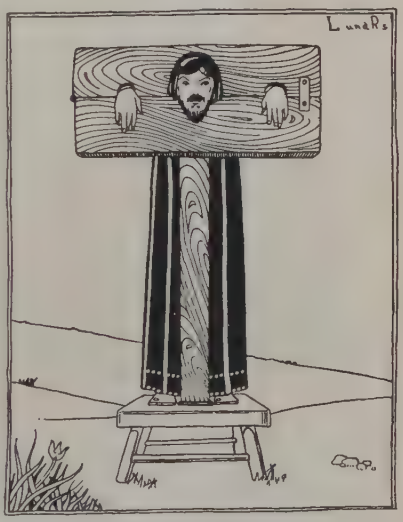
The wealthy classes were carried about in large covered chairs, called "sedan chairs," borne by two men.

hour. Goods were carried on pack horses or in cumbersome wagons. Farmers often would let their produce rot on the ground, during a wet season, be-

Persons were often kidnaped on the streets of London to be sent to the American colonies and sold into service.

cause they could not get it to the nearest town. Mail coaches began to run in 1784. They made a speed of ten miles an hour.

Even in London the streets were narrow, without sidewalks, poorly lighted with occasional oil lamps, and covered with refuse. A few coaches were in use but the people who could afford the price were carried about in large covered chairs borne on poles by two men. They were called "sedan chairs." They continued in use until the close of the reign of George III (1820).



Persons convicted of misdemeanors were exposed in the pillory to the gaze of an insulting public.

Kidnapers and highwaymen.—No efficient police system existed in London or elsewhere. The streets were infested with ruffians and robbers until it was dangerous to be abroad after dark, and every one went armed for protection. In the dark streets of London it was quite a common thing for a gang of ruffians or kidnapers to seize persons, hurry them to the waterside, and sell them to shipmasters, to be carried over to the colonies in America and sold as

servants. It is estimated that as many as ten thousand criminals and vagabonds were thus captured and brought to America. Highwaymen still abounded in city and country, and those who traveled generally went in bands. A stagecoach or wagon was always likely to be held up and robbed.

The stocks were also a means of exposing convicted persons to popular derision.

Punishment for offenses. — Punishment was severe even for small offenses. Hanging was the punishment for theft and many other crimes. There were one hundred and sixty offenses for which hanging was the penalty. Even more terrible punishments were inflicted for treason. The prisons were dirty, unventilated, unwarmed places, where criminals were herded together, without exercise or employment. It is no wonder they lost all hope and all desire for reformation. It was not until 1844 that serious attempts were made in prison reform, by which prisoners were educated and taught trades to make them useful members of society after they were discharged. Public whipping

of men and women was common on the streets of London. Persons who could not pay their debts, or who were unfortunate in business, were liable to be shut up in a loathsome prison, through whose bars they begged for food from passers-by. It was from these debtors' prisons that Oglethorpe chose some of the persons who founded the colony of Georgia in 1733. Ordinary offenders were put in the pillory and exposed to public gaze on the highway, where they could be insulted by the mob, or pelted with eggs. The pillory was used in the New England colonies, and continued in use in England until the accession of Victoria in 1837.

39. ENGLAND AND THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

George III.—In 1760 George III became king of England. He was twenty-two years of age. He was a young man of good character, plain in his habits, faithful to his duty, religious, and kind-hearted. But on the other hand, he was narrow-minded, easily prejudiced, and unspeakably obstinate. His education had been neglected, and all his early training had led him to believe that a king should rule as well as reign. When he was crowned, his mother said to him, "George, be a king in fact as well as in name."

The new king proposed to restore the royal power, to have a prime minister that would do his bidding,

and himself to guide the policy of the government. He did not propose to rule without Parliament, but he did propose to have a Parliament and a ministry that should be under his influence. He could not profit by the example of his forefathers.

Rotten boroughs.—The great mass of the people were poorly represented in Parliament. For two hundred years there had been no changes in the method of electing members or in allotting seats in the House of Commons. Some towns that had grown up had no representatives at all, and some towns that had almost vanished still had the privilege of membership. One town named Old Sarum went on having members in Parliament long after it ceased to have any inhabitants at all. This kind of town was called a "rotten borough."

Pocket boroughs.—Then the great landlords and nobles began to own large areas which once had the right to elect members. The landlords assumed the right to send members of their own choosing to Parliament. This kind of town became known as a "pocket borough" because any landlord or noble who owned the land could put his hand in his pocket and take out the name of any one he chose to be a member of Parliament. Over three hundred members were thus appointed. It is easy to see how the king's friends could control such members. Besides this there were so many restrictions thrown around voting that out of every ten grown men in the coun-

try, one only could vote and he was often bought. The other nine had no voice in the government.

Parliament the tool of the king.—Parliament easily became the tool of the king and his friends. It no longer represented the people of England. It was possible for the ministers and a majority of Parliament to have one set of opinions and the people to have another. It was under these conditions that the obstinate king approached the crisis of affairs with his colonies in America.

Revenue from the colonies.—For a number of years the king was struggling with the question of how to raise revenue from the American colonies in order to help pay the enormous national debt. The mistake he made was that of trying to force his methods upon the colonists whether they liked them or not. They were willing to pay in proportion as they were able, but they had their own notions of how it should be done. The king cared little for the colonies except for the revenue he could raise from them. They were there for the benefit of the mother country. Many of the merchants and manufacturers of England thought likewise, and looked with ill favor upon the growing commerce of the American colonies.

Navigation Laws.—The king decided to enforce the Navigation Laws. Those acts compelled the Americans to trade with England alone, or such other nations as the mother country directed. The

colonists could not sell their tobacco, indigo, rice, furs, lumber, or anything else to anybody except English merchants, and at such prices as those mer-

The delegates from the thirteen American colonies sign the Declaration of Independence.

chants chose to give. This shut out all foreign competition.

The colonists were not allowed to buy anything except from the mother country. Silks from France, tea from China, and household ware from Holland had to be brought in English vessels and sold

through English dealers. In this way prices were higher, for the English merchants added their profit to the cost of the goods.

Restrictions on manufacture.—Restrictions were made on certain manufactures. The colonists were not allowed to make any woolen goods. They might raise all the wool they wanted, but it had to be sent to England to be made into cloth. The colonists were not allowed to manufacture anything out of iron. They might dig all the iron they chose out of the ground, but it had to be sent to England to be made into plows, axes, and other implements. The colonists were not allowed to make beaver hats, or anything out of fur. They might gather all the fur they liked, but the skins had to be sent to England to be made into articles of use.

George III, king of England, whose obstinacy drove the American colonies into revolt.

The colonists began to evade these laws by smuggling. The British officials replied by searching the houses of the colonists for smuggled goods. The people were indignant at the way the officials acted

and protested vigorously. Feeling against the mother country ran high.

The Stamp Act.—To make matters worse Parliament passed the Stamp Act (1765). This act required all legal documents to bear stamps which were printed in England and sold in America. All deeds, notes, wills, marriage licenses, and other papers had to have stamps on them. But the colonists paid little attention to the Stamp Act and went on marrying, making deeds and wills, and giving notes, without any stamps. So much opposition arose to the Stamp Act that it was repealed in 1766.

Isaac Barré.—The cause of the colonists had warm supporters in Parliament in spite of the king and his friends. When the Stamp Act was being considered, Colonel Isaac Barré, who had fought with Wolfe in Canada, replied to a statement that the colonies were children, "planted by our care, nourished by our indulgence, and protected by our arms," by exclaiming indignantly:

"They, planted by your care! No, your opposition planted them in America. They, nourished by your indulgence! They grew up by your neglect of them. They, protected by your arms! Those sons of liberty have nobly taken up arms in your defense."

William Pitt and Edmund Burke.—William Pitt, who was the Earl of Chatham, used his influence to secure the repeal of the Stamp Act and favored

reconciliation at every point. He declared in a speech in the House of Lords, "This kingdom has no right to lay a tax upon the colonies. I rejoice that America has resisted." Edmund Burke, one of the great orators of England, was also one of the leading opponents of the policy of the king and of Lord North, his prime minister.

William Pitt, statesman of England, a firm friend of the American colonies.

The tax on tea.—Parliament was determined to show that it could tax the colonists if it wanted to, and in 1767 passed a law taxing tea, glass, paper, and other articles. The colonists decided that the way to avoid the tax was not to use the articles. They drank sassafras tea instead of tea from China. In the harbor of Boston the tea was forcibly taken from a ship and thrown overboard.

The American Revolution.—Finally in 1776 there was a clash between British soldiers and the colonists at Lexington, and the American Revolution began. In 1776 the colonists made a Declaration of Independence, and the war was continued for lib-

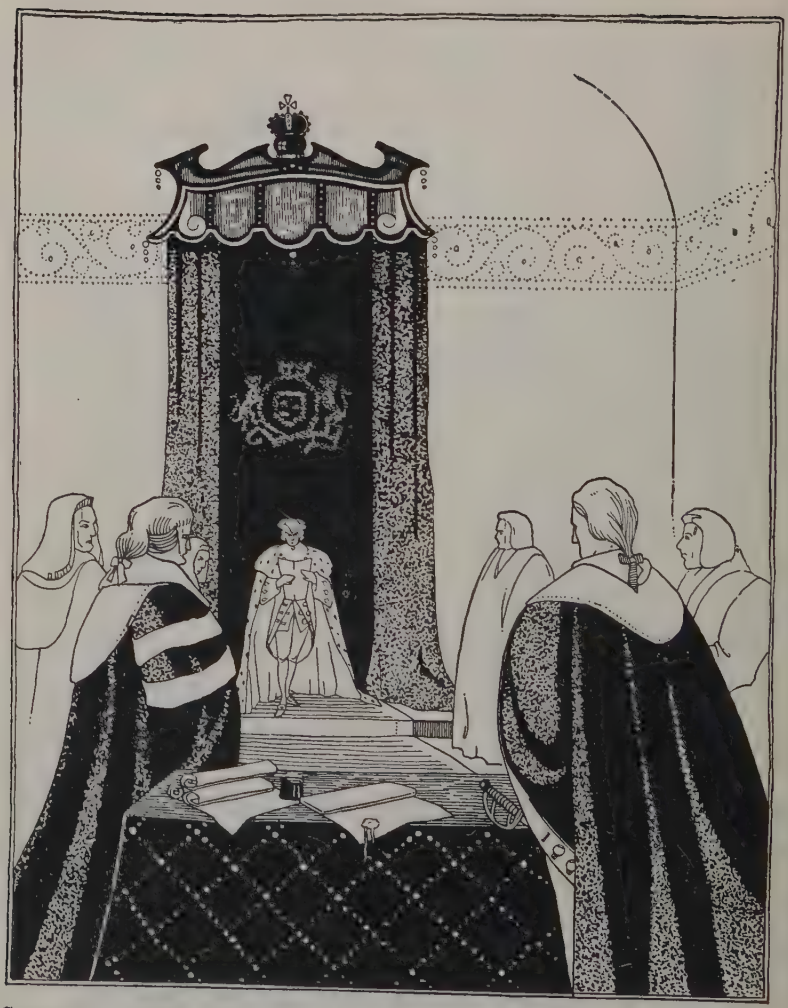
Cornwallis sends his sword to Washington in token of surrender.

erty rather than for the rights of the colonists as subjects. The American Congress placed George Washington at the head of the army. His bravery, patriotism, and generalship were the main factors in the success of the American arms.

In 1777 General Burgoyne, in command of a British army, who was marching south from Canada, was surrounded and forced to surrender. This induced France to make an alliance with the colonists. In 1779 Spain declared war upon England, and in 1780 Holland did likewise. Thus was England engaged in putting down a revolution in America, and in a war against three European powers at the same time.

The treaty of peace.—When Lord Cornwallis surrendered to General Washington at Yorktown in 1781, Parliament decided not to send another army to America, but to make peace with the colonies. Lord North resigned, and his successor made a treaty of peace in 1783 in which the independence of the United States of America was acknowledged. Also, general treaties were made with France, Spain, and Holland.

England retained Canada, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, which remain her possessions to the present day. Florida was returned to Spain, from whom it was bought in 1819 by the United States and annexed as a territory and finally admitted to the Union as a state. Spain remained



George III, in 1783, signs the treaty of peace, acknowledging the independence of the American colonies.

in possession of all the territory west of the Mississippi River.

40. THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

We now come to that great era in the history of the world known as the Industrial Revolution. By this is meant those changes in the method of manufacturing cloth, iron, and steel, and in the means of transportation and travel, that completely revolutionized the industry of the world and the condition of the working classes.

A gradual change.—It was not a revolution that broke out in one place or was carried on by wars and campaigns and ended with a treaty. It was a gradual change wrought by inventors, mechanics, and scientists, working patiently and persistently amid privation and suffering, over wheels, pulleys, belts, and tools, making machines and engines that could produce more articles at less expense and in less time than could be done by the old processes. In some respects the Industrial Revolution is still going on, and will continue as long as men find better ways of making things for human comfort and happiness.

Began in England.—The Industrial Revolution began in England about the middle of the Eighteenth Century, say about 1750. Up to that time men performed their labors in very much the same way that others had done for a thousand years or more. They still used the wooden plow that barely scratched the

EUROPE IN 1789
KINGDOMS OF NORWAY AND DENMARK
KINGDOM OF SWEDEN
FINLAND
St. Petersburg
Novgorod
Moscow
RUSSIA
Smolensk
Black Sea
Constantinople
TURKISH EMPIRE
AEGEAN SEA
Baltic Sea
KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA
Copenhagen
Warsaw
KINGDOM OF POLAND
HANOVER
Berlin
SAXONY
SILESIA
HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE
PETTY STATES
GERMAN
BOHEMIA
AUSTRIAN HAPSBURG TERRITORIES
Vienna
AUSTRIA
BAVARIA
TYROL
SWISS CONFED.
VENICE
ADRIATIC SEA
REP. OF
Venice
MILAN
PAPAL STATES
TUSCANY
Rome
Naples
KINGDOM OF TWO SICILIES
CORSICA
SARDINIA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ALGERIA
North Sea
HOLLAND
AUS. NETH.
Amsterdam
Paris
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
Lyons
Bordeaux
Marseilles
Barcelona
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
Madrid
Gibraltar
KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL
Lisbon
ATLANTIC OCEAN
KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN
London
Camperdown

soil, they sowed their grain by hand, cut it with a sickle, and beat it out with a flail, not much different from the ways of the old Egyptians.

Conditions before the Revolution.—The farm products were few in number, the yield per acre was pitifully small, and the marketing was done in rude carts drawn by horses or oxen over intolerable roads. Carpenters' tools were still ancient in style and crude in construction, for steel and wrought iron were too expensive for the ordinary purchaser. There were no matches to light fires, no kerosene lamps to illuminate the houses, no iron stoves to cook the food on.

The beginning of canals in England.—As we have already seen, the roads of England were in a wretched condition. So they were in all countries at that time. There were then no canals in England, and of course no railroads. Transportation was slow, laborious, and expensive. The first canal was built by the Duke of Bridgewater, who owned large coal mines seven miles from Manchester. Horses then could draw a considerable boatload of coal at much less expense than before. Other canals soon followed, among them one connecting Manchester with the sea, which developed into the Manchester ship canal, making that city a seaport town.

This was the beginning of a system of canals that has been extended until there are five thousand miles of canals in England. The canals exceed in length

that of the navigable rivers. Taken together, the rivers and canals form such a network of water transportation that it is said that no place in all the kingdom is more than fifteen miles from this means of transportation. The canals were a great blessing to the farmers, who quickly found an easy and cheap method of getting their produce to the market.

The macadam road.—For many years the roads continued bad, rough in good weather, and almost impassable in rainy seasons. Between 1760 and 1774 Parliament passed over four hundred and fifty acts for the improvement of the roads, but little was done of permanent value. In 1800 a Scotch engineer named McAdam devised a method of building a road by using crushed stone and soil that since has borne his name. The "macadam road" is still standard in many parts of our own country.

The old spinning wheels.—We have already seen that up to this time most of the manufacturing of England was done in the houses of the people. Indeed the word "manufacture" means to make by hand, and in early times everything was made by hand. After the sheep were sheared in June and the wool washed it was put away until the winter months, when the women would spin the wool fibres into thread on their spinning wheels. Then the men would weave the threads into cloth.

The spinning jenny.—But the spinning wheels could make but one thread at a time, and one weaver

could use as much thread making cloth as eight spinners could spin. The weavers wanted more thread to keep them busy. A Lancashire weaver named Hargreaves invented a machine for spinning several threads at one time, so that the spinners of a family could keep up with the weavers. He made a machine that could spin as many as thirty threads at one time, which was considered wonderful for those days. He called his machine the spinning jenny, after his wife's name.

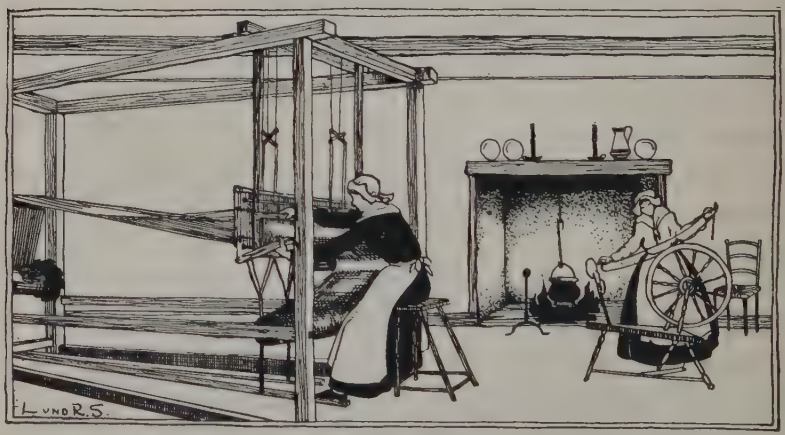
In olden days the women spun the wool fibres into threads on spinning wheels.

Later on Richard Arkwright and Samuel Crompton greatly improved Hargreaves' machine, so that it was run by water power and could spin two hundred threads at one time. This was called the spinning mule.

Cartwright's loom.—The weavers now had more threads than they could use, for they were using the old handloom, of very ancient history, and could not work fast enough to keep up with the spinners. In the handloom the threads were drawn out straight to make the warp, and the weaver drove his shuttle

by hand back and forth to make the woof. Dr. Edward Cartwright invented a machine which threw the shuttle back and forth, thereby greatly increasing the production of cloth. Thus by 1784 England had a machine to spin threads in abundance, and a machine to weave cloth rapidly.

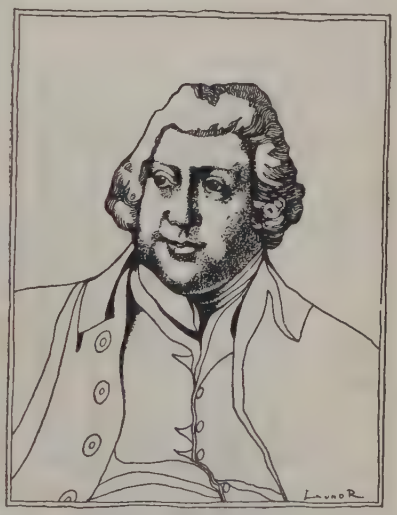
Whitney's cotton gin.—Then the demand came for more cotton to spin into threads and weave into



After the threads were spun they were woven into cloth upon the handloom.

cloth, for cotton was beginning to take the place of wool. This need was supplied by Eli Whitney, of Connecticut, who was living in Georgia at the time. He invented a cotton engine (1793), which came to be called the cotton gin. By using Whitney's gin one man could clean as much cotton lint from the cotton seed as several hundred could do by hand. This gave

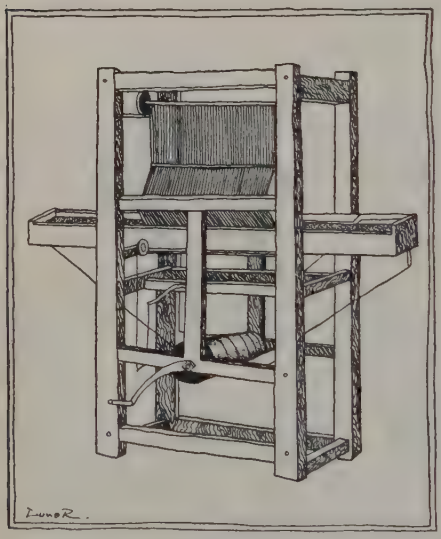
great impetus to the growth of cotton. Whereas in 1793 four hundred bales of cotton were imported into England from America, ten years later nearly one hundred thousand bales were imported. This demand for cotton by the English manufacturers, and this supply of raw material from America, was of great benefit to both countries. Incidentally, it made the growth of cotton the great industry of the Southern States and fastened negro slavery upon them.



Richard Arkwright, who improved upon the spinning wheel of ancient days.

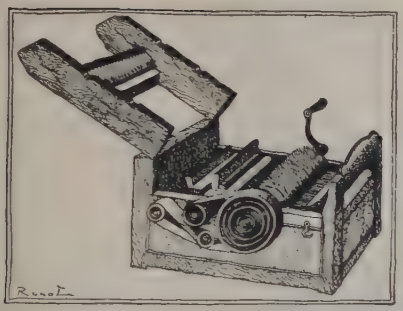
The beginning of mill towns.—The machines for manufacturing cloth were too large and costly to be put up in the houses of the people and worked by hand. Therefore, house weaving was gradually abandoned and mills were constructed by the side of streams where dams could be built and water power could be had. Many mills at the present day are operated by water power, and many towns in all parts of the world owe their origin and growth to the swift rivers which offer cheap power to turn the wheels of the mills. This was the beginning of mill towns everywhere.

Watt's steam engine.—The question of power to operate a machine is as important as the machine itself. It had been known for a long time that steam could produce power, and a rough kind of steam engine had been used for pumping water out of the mines. James Watt set to work to make the steam engine really useful and powerful enough to operate any machine. By 1769 he applied for his first patent, and in 1781 began to build steam engines on a large scale which provided power for general manufacturing purposes. The steam engine made it possible to locate any kind of mill anywhere that coal was to be had.



Edward Cartwright invented a power loom, greatly facilitating the manufacture of cloth.

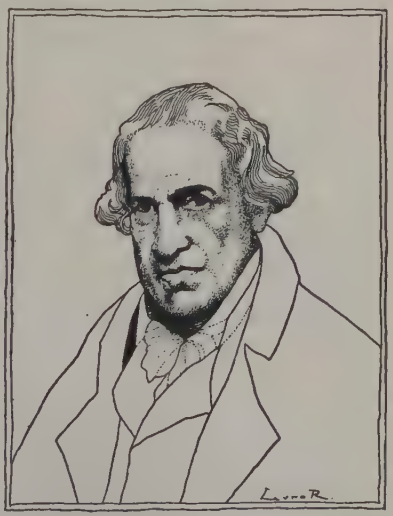
Making iron and steel.—The demand for iron to make machines was now growing into importance. Up to this time iron was costly and the product poor and brittle. In 1790 a process was invented by which a steam blast was used to make iron more rapidly and of a better quality. Shortly afterwards the making of wrought



Eli Whitney, an American inventor, made the first cotton gin, in 1793.

iron was improved, doing away with the brittle castings. Still later on the Bessemer process made steel easily available. By 1800 "the age of steam and iron" was well advanced in the history of manufacturing in England and was beginning to be felt in America.

Manufacturing towns in England.—In order to save the cost of transporting coal, naturally many mills were built in the northwestern and northern counties of England, where lay the great coal fields as well as the rapid running streams, if water power was desired. It was in this part of England that much of the home weaving had been done, for it was also in a grazing section where sheep were raised. Consequently, the small towns of that section began to grow into larger towns. A manufactur-



James Watt, the inventor of the steam engine.

THE BRITISH ISLES
SHETLAND ISLANDS
WHALSEY
FAIR ISLE
ORKNEY ISLANDS
POMONA
HEBRIDES
ISLANDS
The Minch
Little Minch
Kinnaird Head
Aberdeen
Dundee
Scone
Bannockburn
Glasgow
Edinburgh
Paisley
NORTH CHANNEL
Londonderry
Belfast
ISLE OF MAN
Whitby
York
Irish Sea
Chester
Liverpool
Galway
Dublin
Shrewsbury
Boston
The Wash
Kilkenny
Killarney
Cork
Queenstown
ST. GEORGES CHANNEL
Stourbridge
Cambridge
Monmouth
Oxford
LONDON
Bristol Channel
Bristol
Canterbury
Wells
Salisbury
Senlac
Hastings
Exeter
ISLE OF WIGHT
Strait of Dover
ENGLISH CHANNEL
FRANCE
ATLANTIC OCEAN
IRELAND
SCOTLAND
ENGLAND
WALES
NORTH SEA

ing district arose that has since led the world in making cotton and woolen goods. Such great cities as Manchester, Leeds, Sheffield, and Birmingham sprang into importance as manufacturing centers.

The restlessness of the working classes.—The mills began to absorb the labor from the homes. Mill towns sprang up and the handloom disappeared. But the people looked with some fear and distrust upon the great buildings, where monster engines did the work with noise and clamor that used to be done so quietly at home. Besides, the mills could not use all the hands, and there were many who still preferred to work at home and who ill liked to see hand labor supplanted by machinery. But the home workers could not compete with the mills. The result was dissatisfaction and distress, for wages were low, prices high, and people were restless. Even as late as 1811 a mob of workmen attacked a number of mills, broke the machinery to pieces, and burned the buildings. It took many years to adjust the ideas of the workmen to the new plan of all working together.

The Factory System.—The building of these large factories in England, at the close of the eighteenth century, in which heavy machinery was placed and many hands employed, and where water power or steam power was used to turn the wheels, was the beginning of the Factory System of the present day.

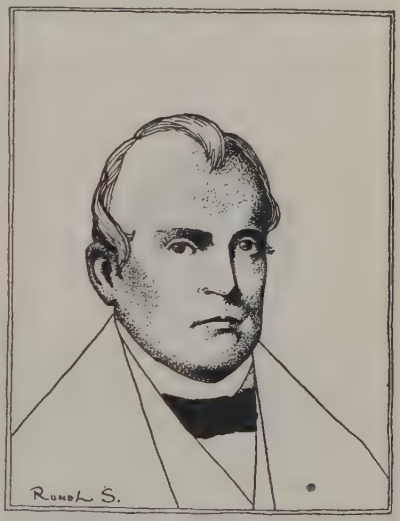
Thus we see how one invention led to another. The spinning jenny called for the spinning mule.

These made a demand for more cotton, which was supplied by the cotton gin. All this called for more iron and steel to make machinery, which was furnished by improved processes. These machines demanded housing in mills by the side of large streams, which created the Factory System. Watt's steam engine made it possible for mills to be located anywhere. Then followed the mill towns as we know them at the present day.

England wished to keep all these advantages for herself and severe laws were passed prohibiting the carrying out of the kingdom of any machine, model, part, or plan of a machine, under heavy penalty. She desired the rest of the world to bring raw material to her mills, to be manufactured into goods that could be sold to the people who raised the raw products. The American states, desiring to know the secret of the manufacture of cotton goods, resorted to smuggling and inventing their own machinery, until the process became well known in America.

Samuel Slater.—Samuel Slater, who was an apprentice working in a cotton mill in England, read in an American paper of the efforts the people of the United States were making to get machinery and to build factories of their own. He resolved to move to America, though he could carry no machines or plans or models with him. However, he studied his machine carefully, and memorized all the parts.

In 1789 he left London with the valuable information stored in his memory. The next year he built a machine mainly with his own hands, and started a mill at Pawtucket, Rhode Island. This was the beginning of the Factory System in America. Samuel Slater therefore became known as the father of American cotton manufacture.



Samuel Slater, the father of American cotton manufacture.

As soon as the Industrial Revolution was well under way, and the world began to understand that English mills could manufacture any amount of raw material, there was a great increase in the volume of commerce from outside countries. More coal was mined, more iron was dug, more ships were built to handle the increasing products of the realm. Gradually the poorer classes sought employment in the mills, and laws were enacted for their protection from grasping mill-owners. From that time on the condition of the lower classes steadily improved.

Steamboats.—America has had conspicuous part in this great Industrial Revolution. Robert Fulton

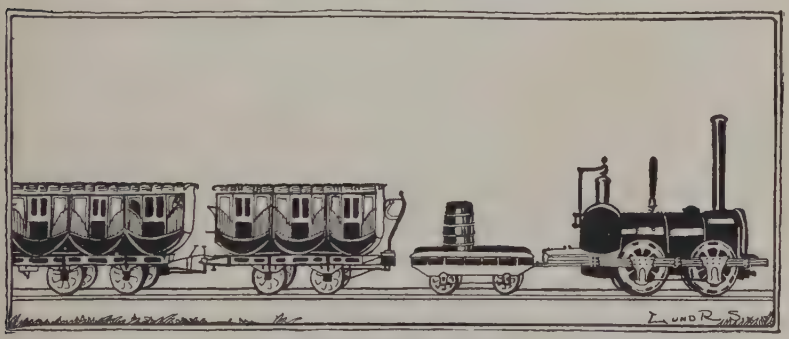
devised the first successful steamboat in 1807, and launched the *Clermont* in the Hudson River, making a trip from New York to Albany in thirty-six hours. This was the beginning of steamboat transportation the world over. In 1819 an American steamship was the first to cross the Atlantic Ocean from Savannah to Liverpool. It took nearly a month to make the voyage, a trip now made in five or six days by immense vessels carrying thousands of passengers.

Robert Fulton, who devised the first successful steamboat, and operated it on the Hudson River in 1807.

Locomotives and railroads.—The steamboat was followed by the locomotive. In 1814 George Stephenson, in England, constructed a steam railway engine that was used to haul coal from the mines to a canal nearby. In 1825 the first passenger railway line, twelve miles long, was opened in England. A rate of fifteen miles an hour was an alarming speed in those days. In 1828 Charles Carroll, the aged signer of the Declaration of Independence, turned the first spadeful of earth in the building of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. In

1830 there were thirty-six miles of railroad in America. Today there are two hundred and fifty thousand miles of railroad, which, if put into a straight line, would reach ten times around the earth.

Many other inventions and discoveries have carried forward the movement of this greatest of revolutions. Only a few can be mentioned. In 1832 Cyrus McCormick invented the harvesting machine,



The early railroad trains were crude affairs compared to those of the present day.

which cut and bound more grain stalks in a half hour than a man could do in a day. Then followed the threshing machine, which could thresh in an hour more grain than a man could beat out by flails in a week.

American inventions.—In 1844 Samuel F. B. Morse invented the electric telegraph. Today there are electric cables under all oceans, connecting all continents, and carrying news of all lands everywhere upon an instant's notice. In the United States alone

there are probably a million miles of electric telegraph wires. In 1842 Dr. Crawford W. Long of Georgia discovered that painless surgery could be performed by placing the patient under the influence of the vapor of sulphuric ether. Before that time agony was endured by those who were operated upon, but now a patient may sleep quietly and painlessly while the surgeons are at work. In 1846 Elias Howe of Massachusetts invented the sewing-machine, lightening the labors of women throughout the world. In the same year Richard M. Hoe of New York invented the rotary printing press, which can print, cut, paste, and fold as many as one hundred thousand newspapers in an hour.

Present-day advantages. — Almost every day brings new inventions, new devices, new discoveries, all adding to the productive powers of mankind, increasing his comforts, usefulness, and happiness. Today we have the telephone, wireless telegraphy, and the radio, that bring the world in close communication. We have electric lights, electric cars, and electric power plants. We have the automobile, the airplane, the passenger elevator, the moving-picture machine, the phonograph, the typewriter, the sleeping car, the air brake, the gas engine, and hundreds of other inventions and devices that make life in modern times very different from that of our ancestors a few hundred years ago.

Let us understand that this is an age of enterprise

and that America is the land of opportunity; that we are the heirs of all that has gone before; and that the future holds for each of us those blessings that come from an appreciation of the trials our ancestors endured and the triumphs they secured, in order that we of the present day may live in peace, prosperity, and happiness.

TOPICS FOR REVIEW

Life and manners of the English people.—How the rich classes dressed; the men; the women. How the poor classes dressed; how they lived. The kind of schools; general ignorance of the people. Condition of the masses. Correcting the calendar. The roads; stagecoach traveling; sedan chairs. Kidnapers in London. Punishments and prisons. By whom Georgia was colonized.

England and the American Revolution.—The character of George III. Rotten boroughs and pocket boroughs. How the king controlled Parliament. Raising money from the American colonies. Enforcing the Navigation Laws. Restriction on manufactures. The Stamp Act. American friends in Parliament. Barré; Pitt; Burke. The tax on tea. Beginnings of the American Revolution. Burgoyne's defeat; the French alliance; England's wars in Europe. Surrender of Cornwallis.

The Industrial Revolution.—Importance of. A gradual change; where begun. Conditions of manufacture and agriculture before the Revolution. Canals in England. Improving the roads. The "macadam road." The old process of spinning and weaving. The spinning jenny. The spinning mule. Cartwright's loom. The cotton gin. Rise of mill towns and why. The steam engine a neces-

sity and by whom supplied. Iron and steel processes. Effect of these improvements upon the mass of working people. The Factory System. Samuel Slater. Steamboats; locomotives. Some American inventions.

SUBJECTS FOR DISCUSSION

Discuss the dangers of disregarding the rights and conditions of the poor class of people. Discuss the unwise acts of George III. How did it happen that Parliament did not represent the people in the time of George III? Discuss the foolish measures of the king toward the American colonies. Why is the Industrial Revolution so important? Tell how one improvement led to another. Name some great inventors and inventions of recent times.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

What did the Rosetta Stone reveal to the world? What are the dimensions of the Great Pyramid? Where is the mummy of Rameses II? What king first coined money? What nation first used an alphabet? Who wrote the *Iliad?* What is it about? What brought on the Trojan War? By what device was Troy finally overcome? What was the first Marathon race? What was the Acropolis? What was the Parthenon? Describe the Socratic method. Describe the Olympic games. What was the Macedonian phalanx? In what way was the skill of Zeuxis and Apelles as artists demonstrated?

Who were Romulus and Remus? How did the early Romans get wives? What was the fate of Tarpeia? How did the geese save Rome? Who was Hannibal? What was the advice of Regulus? What was the fate of Carthage? Describe the Roman Forum. How large was the Circus Maximus? Describe the Colosseum. Describe a Roman triumph. What was the early life of Julius Caesar? Who were jealous of him and why? Who were the Gauls? Tell about Caesar's campaign against them. What was the passing of the Rubicon? What power did Caesar finally obtain? How did he die? How did Christianity differ from the paganism of the Romans? Why were the early Christians persecuted? Who was Constantine? What was the Edict of Milan? What does the world owe to the Romans?

Who were the Teutons? Who was Alaric? Who was Attila? Why was the battle of Chalons of great importance to the history of Europe? When was the downfall of the Roman Empire? How did it come about? What is meant by the Dark Ages? Who was Clovis? Tell the story of the vase of Soissons. How did Clovis become a Christian? Who were the sluggard kings? Who was Mohammed? What was the Hegira? What was the importance of the result of the battle of Tours? How did Charlemagne treat the Saxons? What is the story of the chieftain and the shirts? Of what empire was Charlemagne crowned king? How did he show his love for learning? What was his advice to the children of the rich nobles? What were his habits? How did he show his interest in his people? How did England get its name? What is the origin of "Anglo-Saxon"? Tell the story of Alfred's boyhood. Tell the story of the burning cakes. What was the end of the Danish invasion? How did Alfred measure his time? What good things did he do for England and his people?

Upon what was the Feudal System based? Describe the lord's castle. What were the duties of the vassals? Who were the knights? Describe the education of a page. Describe the training of a squire. What were the duties of a knight? Describe a tournament. Who were the serfs? Describe their houses, and living conditions. What were "free cities" and how did they rise? Why were walled cities necessary? Who were monks and how did they live? Who was head of the Roman Church? What is meant by excommunication? What was an interdict? Describe life in a monastery. How were books made in the Middle Ages? What do

we owe to the Church during the Middle Ages? What were the Crusades? Why were they called Crusades? Who was Peter the Hermit? Describe the hardships of the Crusaders. What were the adventures of Richard the Lion-Heart? What was the result of the Crusades? Who was the Prince of Travelers? What did the Polos see in China? Describe their return and their banquet. What was Marco Polo's book?

What battle began the Norman Conquest of England? What was the Norman influence on England? What was the character of King John of England? What was the Great Charter? When was it signed, and what did it guarantee? Tell something about the English Parliament. Who was the hero of the battle of Crecy? Who was Joan of Arc? What effect did she have on the French soldiers? What was her fate? What was the result of the Hundred Years' War? Who was Roger Bacon? Who invented printing by movable type? What were the four most important inventions of the later Middle Ages? How did trial by jury arise? When did the Middle Ages begin and end? How long did they last?

What is meant by the Renaissance? With what did the East supply Europe? What was the menace of the Turks to the eastern trade? Why did merchants wish an all-sea way to India? What did most people think about the shape of the world? Of what were sailors afraid? Who was Toscanelli? Who was Leif Ericson and what lands did he explore? Describe the enterprise of Spain in the new world. Who brought about the Protestant Reformation? How did Martin Luther defy the Pope? Who was John Calvin, and

what Church did he found? How was the Church of England founded? Describe the reign of Bloody Mary. What was the character of Elizabeth? How did she encourage the industries of her people? Who was John Hawkins and what trade did he follow? Who was the first Englishman to sail around the world?

Why are the Netherlands so called? Describe the land and how it is protected from the sea. Describe the windmills. How did Philip II oppress the Dutch? What were the atrocities of the Duke of Alva? Describe the siege of Leyden. How did Belgium and Holland arise as countries? What was the Invincible Armada? What became of it? What was the result of its overthrow? Why were the Puritans so called? How did Raleigh gain the favor of Elizabeth? What were his activities in America? How did he spend his last days? Who were the Huguenots? What was the Edict of Nantes? Between what countries was the Thirty Years' War? What reforms did Grotius propose?

What was the theory of Copernicus? What did Galileo discover and invent? What did William Harvey discover? What method did Francis Bacon advance? What conditions in England urged people to go to America? What was the character of James I of England? When and by whom was the King James Version of the Bible made? Why did James quarrel with Parliament? Describe the founding of Jamestown, Virginia. Why did the Pilgrims come to America? Why did Charles I quarrel with Parliament? Describe the founding of Maryland. Tell about Charles's treatment of Parliament. How did he manage without a Parliament?

What did John Winthrop say? What refusal did John Hampden make? What was the cause of the Scotch rebellion?

Who was Oliver Cromwell? What was the Short Parliament; the Long Parliament? Who were the Cavaliers? Who were the Roundheads? Describe the soldiers of Cromwell. What was the fate of Charles I? Describe the habits of Cromwell as a ruler. Describe the glory of Louis XIV. How did he begin his reign? What were the French enterprises in America? How were the Huguenots treated? How long did Louis XIV reign? In what war was he engaged? Describe the court life of Louis XIV. How was he considered by his subjects when he died? What was the French and English situation in America in 1733? Who was Frederick the Great? What was his disposition? What brought on the War of the Austrian Succession? Who was Maria Theresa? What was the Seven Years' War known as in America? What was the result of the Seven Years' War?

Describe the way the rich dressed and lived before and during the reign of George III. Describe the dress of the poorer classes. Describe the schools. To what extent were the masses of the people ignorant? How was the Julian Calendar corrected in 1752? Describe a sedan chair. What was the character of George III? What were rotten boroughs? What were pocket boroughs? What were some measures that oppressed the English colonies? What was the purpose of the Stamp Act? What were the words of Isaac Barré? What were the words of William Pitt? How did the colonists treat the tax on tea? What was the result

of the American Revolution? What were the terms of the treaty of peace?

What is known as the Industrial Revolution? Why was this change gradual? Where did it begin and when? What were the conditions before the Industrial Revolution? By whom and where was the first canal in England built? Describe the macadam road. What does "manufacture" mean? Describe the old spinning wheel. Who invented the spinning jenny and how did it get its name? What invention did Cartwright make? Who invented the cotton gin? Where and when? How did mill towns have their beginning? What did James Watt invent? Why did the working classes become restless? What is the Factory System? Who was Samuel Slater, and what did he do for America? Who made the first successful steamboat? Mention some American inventions. Mention some present-day advantages over the olden times. Why is America the land of opportunity? In what way can we take advantage of these opportunities?

PRONUNCIATION INDEX

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